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HUNT'S

MERCHANTS' MAGAZINE

AND

COMMERCIAL REVIEW.

NOVEMBER, 1848.

Art. I.—THE HISTORY AND PRINCIPLES OF ANCIENT COMMERCE.

LECTURE IV.—PART I.

THE COMMERCE OF ANCIENT ROME.

ORIGIN OF AGRICULTURE—CHARACTERISTICS OF AN AGRICULTURAL AND A COMMERCIAL STATE OF SOCIETY—AGRICULTURE OF THE ROMANS—INFLUENCE OF AGRICULTURE ON COMMERCE—WARS OF THE ROMANS—INFLUENCE OF WAR UPON COMMERCE—CONQUESTS OF THE ROMANS—INFLUENCE OF EXTENDED EMPIRE UPON COMMERCE.

THERE is no branch of ancient history with which we are so intimately acquainted as that of Rome, nor is there any which is more closely associated with the ideas and habits of modern times. The language of Rome enters largely into many of the languages of modern Europe, and it is the language associated with the ideas of our earliest youth. From Rome we have derived several of the principles of our laws, and the knowledge of several branches of literature and of science.

Rome, as well as most ancient nations, commenced with a very small territory, and a small population. In tracing the early history of almost every nation, we shall find that it originally consisted of a number of small tribes or clans, wholly independent of each other. The heads of these tribes were the children or descendants of the chiefs of some illustrious family. When a younger son wished to emigrate, he took with him such of his father's retainers as were willing to accompany him, and either took possession of some inhabited district, or dispossessed those who were previously its occupiers. In this way, Rome was founded by Romulus, about 700 years before the Christian era. The people of Rome were rude and uncivilized, possessing little knowledge of the arts of social life, and knowing none of its luxuries. But, though rude, they were not barbarians. They had a fixed place of residence—they understood the rights of private property—they had a settled form of government—and they understood the art of cultivating the earth. They devoted themselves to agriculture; and, in the interval between seed time and harvest, they

amused themselves by making war with the petty tribes by whom they were surrounded. Though generally successful in their contests, they did not rapidly acquire the dominion they ultimately obtained. At the time of Alexander the Great, the territory of Rome did not extend much beyond the present limits of the Ecclesiastical States.

I shall consider Rome in three points of view :—

First. As an agricultural tribe.

Secondly. As a warlike nation.

Thirdly. As an extended empire.

These three points of view will correspond pretty nearly with the three periods of its kingly, republican, and imperial form of government ; and will give us the opportunity of tracing the influence of agriculture, war, and extended empire upon the interests of commerce.

First. Let us consider the ancient Romans as an agricultural tribe, and trace the influence of agriculture upon commerce.

We find that soon after the creation of the world, tillage and pasture were practised. Abel was a keeper of sheep, and Cain was a tiller of the ground. Immediately after the Deluge, Noah planted a vineyard—a circumstance which shows that this art was known to the antediluvian world, and was communicated by Noah to his successors. Egypt and Babylon, founded by his immediate offspring, became remarkable for their agriculture. The tribes which separated from the rest of mankind, and lost their knowledge of the arts of civilized life, neglected agriculture ; but when they became acquainted with settlers from foreign countries, the first art they learned was the art of cultivating the earth. Others became enamored of a shepherd's life, and devoted themselves to pasturage ; but when the earth became more densely peopled, they were under the necessity of occupying a settled habitation, and of attending to the cultivation of the soil. The ancient patriarchs were shepherds, who drove their flocks to wherever they could find pasture and water. A pastoral state is, in some degree, a commercial state, as the shepherds must purchase those commodities which their own mode of life does not produce.

The ancient Romans were devoted to agriculture, and their most illustrious commanders were sometimes called from the plough. The senators commonly resided in the country, and cultivated the ground with their own hands ; and the noblest families derived their surnames from cultivating particular kinds of grain. To be a good husbandman was accounted the highest praise ; and whoever neglected his ground, or cultivated it improperly, was liable to the animadversions of the Censors. At first, no citizen had more ground than he could cultivate himself: Romulus allotted to each only two acres. After the expulsion of the kings, seven acres were granted to each citizen, and this continued for a long time to be the usual portion assigned to them in the division of conquered lands.

An agricultural population, being employed in the open air, necessarily enjoys, in a high degree, strong physical powers. They have strength of body, and usually, strength or firmness of mind—a capacity to endure labor and fatigue. A consciousness of strength produces courage and frankness of behavior. In our own time, recruits for the army, raised in agricultural districts, are always found superior to those raised in towns and cities.

An agricultural population, being scattered over a great extent of coun-

try, have not the same means of intercourse which are to be found in commercial towns. From this circumstance, they have less general information, less artificial courtesy of manners, and a less acquaintance with what is called the world. There is, also, usually less suspicion, and a less acquaintance with the luxuries and the vices of mankind; they are more distinguished for the domestic virtues, and have a less taste for general associations.

An agricultural population is necessarily in a state of gradation of rank; the landlord is superior to the farmer, the farmer is superior to the laborer, and their different ranks are like so many casts, preserved for ages in the same families. Hence, an agricultural population is usually characterized by a submission to authority, an attachment to ancient families and to ancient customs, and an aversion to change.

An agricultural population depends for its success upon the seasons, over which man has no control. From this, arises a consciousness of their dependence upon a superior power. We usually find that an agricultural population is attentive to the observances of religion.

All these observations were illustrated in the history of the earlier Romans.

They were strong, athletic men, possessed of undaunted courage, and they improved their strength and their courage by severe discipline and constant practice. They were remarkable for the simplicity of their manners. Some of their greatest men came from the plough, to act as temporary governors of the nation; and when the occasion for their services had ceased, again returned to labor on their farms. They were remarkable for the practice of the domestic virtues, for their conjugal fidelity, for their attention to the education of their children, and for the discipline of their households. They were remarkable for their subordination to the constituted authorities. Even that invidious distinction of patrician and plebeian was continued for several centuries. A Roman consul possessed more power during the year he was in office, than any king in modern Europe. Though they sometimes resisted their governors, it was usually for the redress of some practical grievance—not with a view of depriving them of power. They were remarkable for their attention to the worship of the immortal gods. They held their oaths most sacred. Any omen, which could be considered as an indication of the displeasure of a deity, filled them with dismay. Even the gods of the countries they conquered were adopted as objects of their worship, and placed in Rome among the original deities.

Now let us trace the influence of agriculture on commerce.

An agricultural country may, without manufactures, carry on an extensive commerce. If the country yields more food than is necessary for the consumption of the inhabitants, that superabundant portion may be exported, in exchange for the manufactured commodities of other nations; but, as the whole population of such a country cannot be employed in cultivating the soil, many persons will be idle. This spirit of idleness will affect those who are engaged in productive industry, and hence the soil itself will not be fully cultivated. There will, therefore, be great poverty, unless the unemployed hands emigrate to other countries, where manufactures are carried on, or where there are waste lands to cultivate.

Agriculture, also, supplies the materials for establishing manufactures. If a country produces abundance of wool, it may have a woollen manufac-

tory; if cattle, it may make articles of leather or of horn; if timber, it may construct ships and barges; if it produces corn, it may make flour, beer, and spirits. The raw materials of most of our manufactures are derived from agriculture.

The extension of agriculture has the effect of lowering the wages of those who are employed in manufacture and commerce. Improvements in agriculture increase the supply of food, and hence lower its price. A reduction in the price of food causes a reduction in the price of labor, and the reduction of wages stimulates manufactures, either by reducing the price of the commodity to the consumers, or by increasing the profit of the manufacturer. In those several ways does agriculture possess an influence on commerce.

We thus see that commerce promotes agriculture, and agriculture promotes commerce. We do wrong when we consider the commercial interests as opposed to the agricultural interests. They both harmonize—they are two wheels of the same machine; and, although they may seem to move in opposite directions, yet each, in its own way, promotes the public wealth, and any obstruction to the movement of one, would soon retard the motion of the other.

Secondly. Let us consider the Romans as a warlike nation, and trace the influence of war upon commerce.

The Romans made war their principal concern. By constant discipline they acquired expertness, and, by almost constant practice, they acquired experience. The Roman citizens formed a disciplined standing army, while their opponents were generally a mere militia, hastily formed to resist the invader. They were at all times anxious to improve their military skill, and borrowed, even from their enemies, all their improvements in arms. Their courage in battle was not less conspicuous than their fortitude under defeat. They never made peace when defeated. Their social institutions were friendly to their military aggrandizement. As a Roman consul remained in office but one year, he was anxious to distinguish his consulate by some remarkable event, and nothing could distinguish him so much as a successful war. The prudent maxims of their government were also additional causes of their success. When they conquered a country they incorporated it with their own. They gave the chief men the privilege of Roman citizens, and suffered the people to govern themselves according to their own laws, reserving to themselves the power of making new regulations, and of inflicting capital punishments. In making war with a distant nation, they always secured first the assistance of some neighboring people. When two nations quarrelled, the Romans assisted the weaker nation, and, in cases of civil war, they took the side of the weaker party. The Romans assisted their allies to conquer their opponents; and, ultimately, both the belligerents became subject to Rome. By a constant adherence to this system, the Roman power became gradually extended.

To maintain a martial spirit among the people, a triumph was usually decreed to the successful general.

Nothing could be more calculated to captivate the imagination than a Roman triumph. A splendid arch was erected, beneath which the procession was to pass; the streets were strewed with flowers, whose fragrance perfumed the air; the citizens thronged to meet with acclamations the returning warrior; before him were carried the spoils which he had

taken from the vanquished foe ; then followed the most illustrious captives, who had been compelled to submit to the prowess of his arms ; the hero himself, clothed in purple, and crowned with laurel, then followed in an open chariot. Patriotism shouted his praises—beauty saluted him with her sweetest smiles—music poured forth her most melodious sounds—and even religion placed on her altar more costly offerings, and clouds of incense ascended from her temples.

But now let us change the scene, and view the country he has conquered. The fields lie waste for want of laborers ; her manhood and her youth have fallen on the field of battle ; her old men, who were placed to defend the walls of her cities, were slain in the assault ; her princes and her heroes who have escaped the sword are loaded with chains, and carried as slaves into a foreign land. The statues and the pictures, and the ornaments of her palaces and her temples, are taken to swell the spoils of the conqueror. The cities are burnt, and now, amid the smouldering ruins, nothing is seen but desolate females, bewailing the loss of those they loved, and half famished children asking why they weep.

We wait not here to consider the humanity or the policy of war. Our object is to trace its influence upon commerce.

The object of war and of commerce are the same—that is, to obtain possession of what we do not possess. But though the object is the same, the means are different. War exclaims—"See ! the people of yonder country have comforts and luxuries which our country does not produce ; we are stronger than they, let us go and kill them, and take their country for ourselves." "No !" says commerce, "while their country produces commodities which ours does not, our country produces commodities which theirs does not ; let us then take some of the commodities of which we have a greater abundance than we need, and offer them in exchange for those commodities we wish to acquire. By this course we shall avoid the guilt of a quarrel, and the danger of a defeat ; we shall obtain an ample supply of all the enjoyments we need ; and we shall promote the happiness of other nations as well as our own." Thus, by means of commerce, we can obtain a large supply of all the productions that are to be found in the whole world as effectually as though we had conquered all its provinces with the sword, and compelled all its inhabitants to toil for our enjoyment. But mankind have, unfortunately, preferred war to commerce ; and the certain advantages that might have been derived from trade have been sacrificed to the hazardous speculations of war.

While, however, we contend that the spirit of war is opposed to the spirit of commerce, we must not be understood to mean that commercial nations are on that account the less capable of carrying on war. Their indisposition to war arises not from want of courage, but from a peaceable disposition and a feeling of justice. They are not led away by a love of glory or a desire for revenge. They take a business-like view of the question ; they examine the debtor and the creditor side of the account, and calculate beforehand what they shall gain by fighting. But, when once compelled to draw the sword, commercial nations are foes not to be despised. Look at ancient Tyre, that for thirteen years resisted the power of Babylon, led on by Nebuchadnezzar ; at new Tyre—a town built on a rock—that for seven months arrested the progress of Alexander the Great ; at Carthage, that for centuries contended with the armies of martial Rome ; and come to modern history, and trace the wars of Venice

and Genoa, of Holland, and of England, and tell me if commercial nations have shown themselves deficient in that valor and enterprize which are the foundations of successful war. It is remarkable that the commercial city of Corinth supplied excellent military commanders, insomuch that the other states of Greece preferred Corinthian generals to native of their own states. May we not infer from this that the commercial virtues of foresight, calculation, diligence, arrangement, and perseverance, united to a knowledge of military tactics, laid the foundation of their success?

But though commercial nations have been sometimes compelled to engage in war, and have generally waged it successfully, yet war is injurious to commerce.

War injures commerce by consuming, unproductively, a portion of the produce of the land and labor of the community. That capital which is employed in providing the material for war, might be employed in promoting trade and commerce. The labor and capital which are employed in constructing fortifications, might be employed in building manufactories, or warehouses, or harbors, or bridges, or commodious houses for the people to inhabit. What is consumed in cannons and muskets might be employed in making railroads; the food and clothing which are given to soldiers might be given to husbandmen, or to manufacturers; and those men who are employed every day at drill, or in fight, might be employed in cultivating the soil, or in the production of valuable articles, or in the management of ships. A nation resembles an individual. If I have 600 men at work on my land, I have a profit on the labor of 600 men; but if I am obliged to employ 200 of these men as soldiers to defend the remaining 400, then I have a profit only on the labor of 400 men, and out of that profit I must pay the wages of the 200, whose labor is wholly unproductive. In this way, war necessarily retards the accumulation of national capital. War is also injurious to commerce by rendering the people less able to purchase foreign commodities. As a certain quantity of national capital is abstracted to carry on the war, less remains in the hands of the people, and, consequently, their means of enjoyment are diminished. A man who has to pay an increased amount of taxes has less money to expend in food and clothing for his family; and there is consequently a less demand for the productions of trade.

War is also injurious to commerce by the obstructions given to the transport of commercial commodities. Nations who are at war cease to trade with each other; hence there is a loss of all the advantages they might acquire by their trade. The trade with neutral nations is also obstructed. The ships must be convoyed—the rate of insurance is increased—the price of the commodity is raised to the consumers to meet these increased charges—the increased price diminishes the consumption, and a less quantity is produced.

On the other hand, peace is friendly to trade. The sailors who were on board ships of war, are now on board merchant ships; the soldiers are employed at the plough, or at the loom; the capital employed in providing material of war is employed in trade and commerce; taxes upon industry are diminished; and, above all, the mental power and energy which was employed in devising means of destruction, are now engaged in cultivating the arts and sciences. How much more useful to the community are those naval officers employed in inventing life-boats, constructing new lamps for light-houses, or in attempting to discover the North Pole,

than though they had been called to expend the blood and treasure of the country in even the most honorable or the most successful war?

Thirdly. Let us consider Rome as an extended empire, and take a view of the influence of extended empire upon the interests of commerce.

The conquests of the Romans, however achieved, were ultimately beneficial to the nations they conquered. The nations whom they conquered they civilized; they introduced the arts and sciences among the people; they established roads and constructed bridges; they built cities and aqueducts in all the conquered countries; they extended and improved the cultivation of the soil. This they would do for their own advantage, as the tax imposed on a conquered country was usually one-tenth, or sometimes one-twentieth, of the produce. One great advantage of the Roman conquest was the diminution of war. Previous to their conquest, Greece, Italy, Spain, Gaul, and Britain—the most civilized and the most barbarous nations—were each divided into a number of small independent states, which were perpetually at war with each other; but, when all these states were brought under the Roman power, their domestic and international contests were necessarily at an end. Though Rome was a despotic, she was not a tyrannical mistress. She delivered the people of Asia from the tyranny of their monarchs, and the people of the West from that of the Druids. Sometimes independent nations petitioned to be placed under the Roman government. The mildness of the Roman authority is obvious from the very few insurrections that occurred among the conquered countries; except those in Spain and Britain, fomented by the Druids, there were none deserving of attention. The Roman army consisted of fewer than half a million of men, and these were employed on the frontiers, to defend the empire against the incursions of barbarians; and, when the Roman empire fell, it fell not by an insurrection from within, but by a power from without. So firmly was it fixed in the affections and the habits of the people, that even the vices and follies of the emperors could not destroy its greatness, until the barbarian came and plucked it up by the roots.

The Romans kept possession of Britain, 366 years; of Spain, 785 years; of Gaul, 425 years. The length of time the Romans kept possession of these countries shows that the people were happy under their government.

It is the opinion of some writers that Europe was more populous, and better cultivated, in the time of the Romans, than it is at the present day. In this comparison, however, we must leave out Germany and all the northern nations, as these were never subdued by the Roman arms; but Italy is said to have had 1,197 cities; Gaul, 1,200; Spain, 360; Africa, 300; Asia, 500; and the cities of Antioch and Alexandria were almost rivals of Rome.

In the time of Augustus Cæsar the boundaries of the empire were, on the west, the Atlantic Ocean; on the north, the Rhine and the Danube; on the east, the Euphrates; and on the south, the deserts of Arabia and Africa. To these were afterwards added the conquests of Britain and Dacia. Trajan subsequently conquered the Parthians; but the conquests were relinquished by his successor, Hadrian. Thus, the Roman empire included, in Europe, Britain, Spain, Gaul comprising Belgium, France, part of Germany and Switzerland, Italy, Greece, and the islands in the

Mediterranean Sea ; in Asia, it included all Asia Minor, Phœnicia, Palestine, and Syria ; in Africa, it included Egypt, and all the coast from Egypt to the Straits of Cadiz—a greater extent of country than was ever before included under one government, being about 3,000 miles long and 2,000 miles broad. Let us now trace the effects of this extended empire upon commerce :—

The extended empire of Rome was beneficial to commerce by increasing the demand for luxuries.

In an extended empire the standard of wealth is higher, and there is a greater number of wealthy men. We read, that among the Romans there were men whose wealth far surpassed that of private individuals in modern times. The possession of wealth furnished the means of obtaining those enjoyments which are usually distinguished by the name of luxuries.

In the early periods of the Roman history, Italy produced nothing that could be desired by other nations. Agriculture furnished the Romans with all the necessaries of life, and they had no taste for its luxuries. But, after they became wealthy by conquest, they became desirous of the comforts which wealth can supply. Their houses, their dress, their food, their furniture, and their equipage, were all of a more costly kind. Italy was converted into gardens, so that even corn, the necessary of life, was imported from the provinces. The Romans purchased these commodities, not by giving agricultural or manufactured produce in return, as was the case with Carthage, but with the money obtained from the provinces themselves. The revenues of the republic were spent in Rome. The wealthy men in Rome had extensive estates in the provinces. The money sent to Rome as tribute, or as rent, was returned to the provinces as the purchase of their produce. Rome was supplied with corn chiefly from Sicily and Egypt ; from the barbarians of the north, she obtained amber ; from Malta, she obtained fine cloths ; from the East Indies, she obtained silks, and spices, and precious stones ; from her various provinces, she obtained the produce of their mines, their soil, their climate, or their industry. Thus, the trade with Rome was altogether a trade of imports. She received everything ; she exported nothing—nothing but money, which she obtained at first from the provinces themselves. A large portion of the imports of Rome consisted, probably, of raw produce, for all the great men had large establishments of slaves, who understood the art of manufacturing most of the articles necessary for ordinary use. The more elegant and costly articles, for the use of the wealthy, were imported from those provincial towns that were distinguished for these productions.

We shall confine our details of Roman luxury to that of the table.

The luxury of the table commenced about the period of the battle of Actium, and continued till the reign of Galba. Their delicacies consisted of peacocks, cranes of Malta, nightingales, venison, and wild and tame fowls ; they were also fond of fish. The reigning taste was for a profusion of provisions ; whole wild boars were served up, filled with various small animals and birds of different kinds. This dish was called the Trojan horse, in allusion to the horse filled with soldiers. Fowls and game of all sorts were served up in pyramids, piled up in dishes as broad as moderate tables. Mark Anthony provided eight boars for twelve guests. Caligula served up to his guests pearls of great value, dissolved in vinegar. Lucullus had a particular name for each apartment, and a certain scale of expense attached to each. — Cicero and Pompey agreed to take supper

with him, provided he would not order his servants to prepare anything extraordinary. He directed the servants to prepare the supper in the room Apollo. His friends were surprised at the magnificence of the entertainment. He then informed them, that when he mentioned the name of the room, his servants knew the scale of expense. Whenever he supped in the room of Apollo, the supper always cost £1,250. He was equally sumptuous in his dress. A Roman Prætor, who was to give games to the public, requesting to borrow one hundred purple robes for the actors, Lucullus replied, that he could lend him two hundred if he wanted them. The Roman furniture in their houses corresponded with their profuseness in other respects. Pliny states, that in his time more money was often given for a table, than the amount of all the treasures found in Carthage when it was conquered by the Romans.

The extended empire of Rome was also beneficial to commerce, by making her the centre of the trade of some of her colonies.

All capital cities acquire a traffic of this kind. There is generally a facility of communication between the capital and the provinces, while the direct communication between province and province may be more difficult. In this case each province will send its productions to the capital, which will become the general market for the productions of all the provinces. The capital, too, being the place of general resort, a greater number of purchasers are there likely to be found. Thus, in London, you may obtain the choicest production of Belfast, Leeds, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, and Norwich. Thus, at Athens, you might have obtained the products of all the states of Greece. And thus, in ancient Rome, all the articles of luxury that were produced in any part of her extended empire, might be obtained of the choicest quality and in the greatest abundance.

Although the city of Rome produced nothing to give in exchange for her imports, yet she must thus have had considerable traffic from being the centre of communication between her several provinces. The inhabitants of Gaul or Spain would purchase in Rome the produce of Greece or Egypt, or of India, while the inhabitants of Greece, of Asia, and of Egypt, would buy in Rome the productions of the western provinces. As there was a direct communication between each province and Rome, the inhabitants of the different provinces would find it more convenient to exchange their superabundant productions through the intervention of Roman merchants, than to trade direct with each other. Every large city which is situated between two districts which yield different productions, has a trade of this kind; and it is precisely the kind of trade which is carried on by every seaport town. Rome was not a seaport; yet, as she was the centre of attraction and of communication of all her provinces, she became their general market, and thus acquired a trade somewhat similar to that of Tyre and Alexandria. The difference was, that Rome was not a seaport, and did not herself produce for exportation any kind of manufactures.

The extended empire of Rome was further useful to commerce by facilitating the direct trade between those countries which were under her government.

Every country possesses some physical advantages, in consequence of which the outlay of labor and capital will produce a larger quantity of particular commodities than could be produced in other countries. The

climate of one country is friendly to the production of silk and wine ; another yields corn and cattle ; a third has mines of coal, and copper, and iron ; another has extensive forests of timber. Now, it is for the general interests that each country should produce those commodities for which it has a natural advantage, and exchange it for the superabundant productions of other countries. If the inhabitants of any country say, "We will have no trade—we will produce all these commodities from our own soil," it will be found that those people will produce very badly some commodities, which they might otherwise have had in perfection, and will have but a scanty supply of some comforts, which they might otherwise have had in abundance ; while, at the same time, it will have no market for its own surplus productions.

When each country has been an independent state, conduct like this has, more or less, been often adopted with reference to particular commodities, both in ancient and in modern times. Sometimes nations have prohibited the importation of the productions of other countries, in order to encourage the growth of similar productions at home. Or they have laid on a certain duty or tax, in order to enable the home production to come into competition with the foreign. On the other hand, nations have sometimes prohibited the exportation of commodities, lest enough should not remain for home consumption, or lest other nations should obtain some advantage from their possession. Latterly, nations have been more disposed to lay prohibitions on imports than on exports.

But when these rival countries become united under one government, and form one nation, such restrictions do not exist. What was formerly a foreign trade, now becomes a domestic trade. Each nation employs its capital and labor in the production of those commodities which its physical or acquired advantages enable it to produce with the least cost, and in the greatest perfection ; and a free interchange takes place between them, uninterrupted by war, or national jealousy, or fiscal regulations. It is clearly not for the interests of commerce that the family of mankind should be subdivided into a great number of small independent states. It is the interest of commerce that small nations or states should unite and form large ones. If all Germany formed one kingdom, there would be more trade between the respective divisions. If all Italy formed one state, the internal trade would be increased ; and if France and Italy, and Spain and Portugal and England, were united under one government, as they were in the days of the Romans, the commerce between these countries would be unrestricted, and, consequently, more extensive. Extended empire, then, in these various ways, is friendly to commerce.

The Rev. JOSEPH P. THOMPSON relates the following anecdote in his series of Lectures to Young Men, delivered in the Broadway Tabernacle, and recently published by Leavitt, Trow, & Co. :—

"The late President of the late United States Bank once dismissed a private clerk, because the latter refused to write for him on the Sabbath. The young man, with a mother dependent on his own exertions, was thus thrown out of employment by what some would call an over-nice scruple of conscience. But a few days after, when the President was requested to nominate a cashier for another bank, he recommended this very individual, mentioning the incident as a sufficient testimony to his trust-worthiness. 'You can trust him,' said he, 'for he wouldn't work for me on Sunday.'"

ART. II.—THE AGRICULTURE OF THE UNITED STATES.

"Omnium rerum ex quibus aliquid acquiritur, nihil est agricultura melius nihil uberius, nihil dulcius, nihil homine libero dignius."—CICERO, *de Officiis*, 1-42.

AGRICULTURE may with justice be placed at the head of the arts, and it certainly has the advantage of all others, as well with regard to its antiquity as utility. It was in altogether different esteem among the ancients compared to what it is with us; which is evident from the multitude and quality of the writers upon that subject. The revenues and profits which arise from the culture of lands is neither the sole nor the greatest advantage accruing from it. All the authors who have written upon rural life have always spoken of it with the highest praises, as of a wise and happy state, which inclined a man to justice, temperance, sobriety, sincerity, and, in a word, to every virtue; which, in a manner, shelters him from all passions, by keeping him within the limits of his duty, and of a daily employment which leaves him little leisure for vices. Luxury, avarice, injustice, violence, and ambition, the almost inseparable companions of riches, take up their ordinary residence in great cities, which supply them with the means and occasions: the hard and laborious life of the country does not admit of these vices. It is the great advantage of agriculture, to be more strictly united with religion, and also moral virtue, than any other art; which made Cicero say, that the country life came nearest to that of the wise man—that is, it was a kind of practical philosophy.

The United States of America are comprised within the parallels of 10° E. and 48° W. of the meridian of Washington, extending on the Atlantic coast from 25°, and on the Pacific coast from 32° to 49° of North latitude, and covering an area of 3,314,665 square miles, being larger than the entire continent of Europe. And in surveying the agricultural productions of the Union, we are not only struck with their abundance, but with their great variety and value. Its territorial domain extends from the frigid regions of the North to the genial climate of the tropics, affording almost every variety of temperature, and every kind of grain and vegetable. In the North, we have rich and abundant pasturage, giving forth the valuable products of the flock and dairy; in the middle and western regions of the Union, corn in all its varieties is produced in superabundant quantities; and in the South, rice, cotton, and sugar grow luxuriantly; and nearly all in sufficient quantities to supply our domestic consumption, and furnish large supplies for exportation, thus furnishing nearly all the value as well as bulk of our foreign commerce. When contemplating the extent and value of its products, the number of persons engaged, and the capital employed, the agriculturist may well believe that agriculture is the great transcendent interest of the Union, upon which all other interests are dependent.

And he has equal reason to console himself with the honorable character and exalted dignity of the pursuit in which he is engaged. No occupation offers a greater field for experiment and for the application of science, directed by sound judgment. Experience has proved that every grain, vegetable, and fruit, is susceptible of improvement by scientific cultivation. Science and skill have converted the potato from a half

poisonous root to a valuable article of human food. They have wrought the same magic transformation upon the apple, peach, and many other fruits and vegetables. Science investigates the nature of soils and manures, and develops the elements of plants, thus pointing out the means by which soil, manure, and plant may be adapted to each other, and more abundantly reward the labor and skill of the husbandman. And to crown all, genius stoops from its lofty flight to lessen the burden of his toil and mitigate the severity of his labor, by conferring upon him useful implements and valuable machines. Truly may agriculture be called the mother of the arts, the most honorable and the most prolific of good to the world, to which all other arts pay grateful homage, and with which science itself seeks honorable association. May agriculture ever be cherished by the American citizen as the interest of his country greatest in honor, dignity, and importance, and constituting the very foundation of its independence, wealth, and power.

The value of the products of labor and capital in the United States for 1847 was \$2,013,779,975,* divided as follows:—

Agricultural products.....	\$838,163,928
Products of Orchards.....	8,853,422
“ Gardens.....	45,000,000
“ Nurseries.....	724,111
Live stock and its products.....	252,240,779
Products of the Forest.....	59,099,628
“ Fisheries.....	17,069,262
Profits of capital employed in commerce, trade, and internal transportation, \$390,972,423—at 6 per cent.....	23,458,345
Products of Manufactures.....	550,000,000
“ Mines.....	74,170,500
Profits of capital of Insurance Companies.....	20,000,000
“ “ Banks (\$208,216,000) and of all other sums loaned at interest.....	25,000,000
Rent of houses and lands.....	50,000,000
Profits of professions.....	50,000,000

Total products of labor and capital..... \$2,013,779,975

The exports of articles of the growth and manufacture of the United States for the year ending June 30th, 1847, were as follows:—

The Sea.....	\$3,468,033	Manufactures	\$9,305,000
“ Forest.....	5,996,073	Lead.....	124,981
Agriculture.....	11,113,074	Articles not enumerated....	2,308,260
Vegetable food.....	57,070,356	Government stores to the army from New York.....	326,800
Tobacco.....	7,242,086		
Cotton.....	53,415,848		
Wool.....	89,460	Total exports for 1847,	\$150,637,464
All other agricult. products.	177,493		

The amount of registered tonnage to June 30th, 1847, was.....	1,231,312 92-95
“ enrolled “ “ “ “	1,597,732 80-95

Total tonnage..... 2,839,045 72-95

The number of vessels built in 1847 was 1,598, measuring 243,732 67-95 tons.

The amount of capital invested in manufactures in the United States at the present time is estimated to be \$326,726,500.

* For the facts adduced in this article, the writer is indebted to the elaborate report of that indefatigable public officer, EDMUND BURKE, Esq., Commissioner of Patents.

We shall, in the course of the present article, adduce some facts and offer some remarks in relation to the different articles of the growth of the United States.

WHEAT. The States of New York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, on the Atlantic border, together with the North-western and Western States reaching down to Tennessee, are properly the wheat country of the Union. It is very doubtful if more than one-tenth of the wheat crop of the first four named States can be spared for exportation; while, in the Western States, probably one-fifth might be thus appropriated.

In Ohio, as indeed in nearly all the wheat region, especially that of the West, there were complaints of the presence of the fly in the autumn of 1846. The winter in the early part of the season was open, and as the ground was moist and there were frequent alternate freezing and thawing, great apprehensions were expressed that the crop would suffer severely by being winter-killed. These fears proved to have been in a considerable degree well founded; and but for the fact that there had been a much larger breadth sown, the probability is that the amount, compared with the crop of 1845, might have been lessened, and materially so. The crop of 1846, however, having been large, and the prospect of demand most favorable, it is believed that the seeding for 1847 was very much increased. The gradual introduction, also, of machinery for lessening labor on a large scale, doubtless exerted a partial influence likewise in this respect. Although the crop had suffered severely in some parts, but taking the whole State, it was believed that there was an average crop.

The large crop of the previous year, the nearness to the market on the sea-board, and the increased demand for breadstuffs, led to a greater cultivation of wheat in the States of New York and Pennsylvania during the year 1847. It appears, from the best information which could be obtained, that the yield per acre in 1847 was at least an average one. In some parts complaint was made of the fly, and winter-killing was likewise supposed to have reduced the amount per acre one-fourth or one-half, and the average number of bushels was set in these cases at ten or as low as seven, while in others it is estimated as having yielded well. In western New York, the loss by fly and winter-killing was estimated at about 20 per cent. In the eastern part of the State, the crop was better.

The general aspect of the wheat crop of Pennsylvania, in the earlier part of the season, corresponded to that of many other States, and does not seem to have been promising. As the harvest approached, however, the accounts were more favorable. The average number of bushels per acre varies, as given, from eight, ten, to eighteen bushels.

Virginia is likewise a large wheat growing State, and the prospects were early described with the apprehension of a short crop. In the western part of the State, bordering on Ohio, and in those sections which were contiguous to Maryland and Pennsylvania, it appeared much as the accounts from those States described it. In the interior, and the south-eastern counties, it yielded better. The average number of bushels to the acre did not seem to be as great as in New York and the Western States. It was given as varying from four, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, twelve, up to fifteen bushels per acre; probably the general average will not hold higher than eight to ten bushels throughout the State. The proportion of the crop, it would appear from the United States census of 1840,

is about equal between the eastern and western districts, though the western raises somewhat the larger amount.

In Maryland and the Southern States there was a considerable increase upon the crop of 1845.

In the South-western States of Mississippi, Tennessee, Kentucky, and Arkansas, judging from the accounts given of the wheat crop, the yield was better than usual, and it has been estimated accordingly.

The wheat crop of Indiana presented much the same aspect as did that of the adjoining States Ohio and Michigan at the early part of the season. Complaints were frequent of winter-killing, and apprehensions entertained lest the damage should prove more serious than it afterwards did. The average product per acre also varies from seven and a half, ten, twelve, sixteen, to twenty and twenty-five bushels per acre. The more common average would appear to be from ten up to twenty bushels per acre. Making due allowance for the conflicting estimates, we believe that the crop of 1847 may be estimated at an advance of about 15 per cent upon that of 1845.

In Illinois, although the winter wheat had failed badly, yet the spring wheat went far to supply the deficiency. In August, however, the report was more favorable; for the deficiency in quantity was made up by the fine quality, as the heads proved remarkably long and the berry plump. Taken as a whole, there was a slight advance on the crop of 1845, though it was not equal to 1846.

Michigan is considered to possess great advantages as an agricultural State. The climate is a favorable one, as the extremes of temperature between winter and summer are not so great as in many of the States further east, of the same latitude. This is attributed to the large bodies of water, which modify the range of the thermometer. The winter lasts from three to four months, during which period the ground is mostly covered with snow to the depth of one or two feet. The ground is fit for the plough about the 20th of March, and often much earlier. About harvest, in July, there is a period of several weeks during which rain scarcely ever falls; a great advantage to the wheat-grower, as he is thus enabled to gather his crop with less labor, and free from rust. The soil is also thought to possess some peculiarities which add to its fitness; its extreme depth—the deposit, in some instances, being one hundred feet—and loose, gravelly texture, allows of copious absorption, retention, and percolation of rain-water, thus providing for abundance of springs, and permitting a wide range for the roots of plants. It becomes also easy of tillage, and is less susceptible of drought. As lime is a constituent part, and there is a good proportion of the salts required, it is again well adapted to the culture of wheat. The timbered regions especially are easily cleared, and become very productive, yielding from twenty to forty bushels per acre. The progress of the wheat crop of Michigan, where this crop is becoming more and more a staple, is encouraging. The same apprehensions to which we have referred in the account of other States adjoining, existed as to winter-killing; but as the season advanced, these forebodings were gradually dissipated. The average yield per acre is estimated to have been at least twenty bushels.

The crops of Iowa and Wisconsin, too, which are now coming much more into competition with some of the adjoining States, proved unusually

good. It is thought that the quantity raised in 1847 was two or three times as much as in 1845.

It is deemed unnecessary to go further into detail in reference to the wheat crop of particular States. Taken as a whole, the aggregate crop of wheat in the United States for 1847 was probably not as large as that of 1846, better than that of 1844, and not varying very greatly from that of 1845. The entire product of the United States for 1847 was estimated at 114,245,500 bushels.

Many interesting particulars have been collected during the past year relating to the varieties of wheat in use in the United States, as well as the uncommon growth of individual specimens. The Mediterranean wheat, which was highly recommended several years since, still holds its place, to a great degree, in the estimation of its cultivators. Numerous instances have occurred in different States and sections of the Union, in which it is mentioned with high commendation, and its freedom from rust and other evils which more commonly attend upon other varieties of wheat asserted. One account in Maryland speaks of an extraordinary crop. The mode of cultivation was as follows. The ground the previous season was devoted to oats, and almost as soon as these were taken off, the manure was carried on, the stubble broken up and well harrowed. It was then left till the 25th of August, at which time it was sown, at the rate of two bushels of seed per acre, then ploughed pretty deep, then a large harrow was passed over it; the first growth is stated to have been destroyed by the fly, but by having an early start, it came out from the root wonderfully, some roots bearing fifty-four or fifty-five stalks. The product of a single grain, numbering fifty-two stalks, in one instance was counted, and found to be one thousand three hundred and seven grains; another gave fifty-eight stalks, yielding one thousand five hundred grains. Another account, alluding to the Mediterranean wheat, states that it is proof against the fly, and that its quality, which is sometimes the subject of complaint, as inferior to many other kinds, depends greatly on the nature of the soil and time of harvesting.

The Etrurian, Zimmerman, and Red May, are likewise noticed with approbation, as well as, in the northern sections of the country, the Black Sea and other varieties.

Some Oregon wheat, distributed, with other kinds, from the Patent Office, was highly approved. From one small parcel of a kind thus sent out, a variety has been found, bearing the name of "*Woodfin red straw*," after the name of its successful cultivator.

In addition to the examples already given of the great productiveness of wheat, the following selection, from numerous others, may be deemed interesting:—Robert W. Baylor, of Virginia, alluding to the Oregon wheat distributed from the Patent Office, states that a gentleman from Maryland procured a small quantity, and after he had sown it a few times, raised enough to sow four and a quarter acres of ground, from which, in 1845, he reaped two hundred and eleven bushels, being over fifty bushels to the acre.

A writer in one of our agricultural journals states, that of a species of wheat which he terms "*Hardware wheat*," the product obtained from a single grain, which had thirty-seven heads, was two thousand eight hundred and twelve grains, being an average of seventy-six grains to a head. In Missouri, the product of a single grain is stated to have been seventy

stalks, which yielded four thousand grains ; this would require but one peck of seed per acre.

There is one more consideration which deserves some attention in relation to the wheat crop. The bushel of wheat weighs less some years than others, and the difference amounts to two, three, or even four pounds. Though this may seem of comparatively little consequence for a few bushels, yet for the aggregate of the wheat crop of the United States, or for a State or even a county, it makes a great difference. Suppose, for instance, that, for one year, the crop of the United States should amount to 110,000,000 bushels, and weigh but fifty-nine pounds per bushel, and in another the quantity should be but 108,000,000 bushels, and yet weigh sixty-two pounds per bushel ; the last crop, though less in quantity by two millions of bushels, would exceed the former in weight by 206,000,000 of pounds. But this is not the whole state of the case. It is stated, upon good authority, that a bushel of wheat weighing fifty-six pounds yields but forty-six and three-quarter pounds, whilst one weighing sixty-two pounds yields fifty-three and a half pounds. On this supposition a still further allowance must be made, enhancing considerably the value of the quantity above stated. Were we to estimate the product for one year at 110,000,000 bushels, weighing only fifty-six pounds, and that of another 108,000,000 bushels, weighing sixty-two pounds, then the difference in favor of the latter, though the least in quantity, would amount to 536,000,000 pounds in weight, or more than one and a quarter millions of barrels of flour.

BARLEY. From the best information which can be obtained, it is believed that the crop of barley this year was better than in some former years. So little notice, however, is taken of it, on account of its small amount, in comparison with many others far more important, that it is difficult to ascertain its progress. It is raised in small patches, instead of covering hundreds of acres in close neighborhood. Its use is mainly for malt purposes, and the claims of temperance seem to have contributed very much to lessen the whole crop.

In the State of New York, which furnishes three-fifths of the whole of this crop, there seems to have been a falling off in some instances, yet in general the reports were favorable, and compared with the crop of 1845, it was thought to have been 20 per cent better. In the New England States, also, there was a slight increase, whilst in Pennsylvania the reports indicated that less attention was paid to it than formerly, and probably the crop of 1847 was a little less than that of 1845. In Ohio it was, as it would appear, better than in 1846, and therefore an advance in 1847. It is thought that, in some of the States, attention is turned more to barley, not so much for the direct product of the seed, as for the purpose of fodder, and that this may likewise inadvertently cause an increase in the whole amounts. It may be noticed that, in some cases where the wheat did not do well, barley is reported as quite successful, and has given a slight addition on the whole to the aggregate crops. After the best examination which can be given to the subject, it is believed that there was an increase on the whole crop of about 10 per cent at least. The whole product of the United States for 1847 was estimated at 5,649,950 bushels.

OATS. It is believed that more land than usual was devoted in 1847 to this crop. It was not sown, however, exclusively for seed, and in some

of the reports respecting it, the estimate was made in tons of hay derived from it. This was the case especially with reference to the South-western States, where, however, comparatively little attention is paid to it. As a general thing, the crop was not considered as good for the year comparatively in the Northern and Eastern States, as in the Southern and Western. The average amount per acre in the Northern States is put down as varying from thirty up to fifty, and sometimes one hundred bushels. In the Northern, Middle, and Southern States, it did not exceed ten bushels, and about the same in the South-western. In the Western and North-western again, about twenty-five, thirty, forty, and even up to fifty bushels per acre was produced. The aggregate average, throughout the Union, was about thirty bushels per acre.

The crop of oats in the State of New York, taken per acre, was probably not as good as in 1845; but as a whole, the two past years have exhibited an increase in the amount raised. In the New England States, as it is generally a favorite crop, it seems to have had its usual attention, with a slight increase of area devoted to it, and on the whole to have gained on the crop of 1845. In Pennsylvania, there was a considerable decrease upon the crop of 1845. Virginia raised a considerable crop of oats, and upon the whole, the crop of 1847 indicated a very considerable increase. In some portions of the State, towards the south-eastern section, there was a decrease, but in the interior and western parts it was much more successful. It will be recollected that the crop of 1845 was a poor one; and it would appear that the crop of 1847, in those places where it proved most successful, was double of the former one. The increase for the whole State, however, cannot be estimated higher than one-quarter more. Proceeding south, although the quantities raised are not large compared with many other crops, yet, owing to the better season, they were considerably increased. The crops of Tennessee and Kentucky, we should judge, were good. The increase was estimated as high as 20 per cent. In some parts of Ohio the crop was estimated at double the crop of 1845, and even larger. As a general estimate, it is believed to have reached as high as 15 to 20 per cent. Similar is the report respecting Indiana and Illinois. There was a far larger crop of oats raised in 1847 than in 1845 in parts of these States. It is thought, that in these and all the North-western States, the increase in the crop of oats has been steady for a number of years. Considerable attention is paid to the raising of oats in Wisconsin and Iowa, as well as Michigan.

The entire crop of oats produced in the United States for 1847 was estimated at 167,867,000 bushels.

RYE. This likewise is one of those crops which are raised in small quantities, and the greater portion of which is confined to a few States. It is likewise a product which, since its use for distillation has been very much abridged, does not seem to be in much demand. This fact has contributed to lessen its proportionate increase. It is sometimes, however, on account of being the hardier grain, resorted to as a substitute for wheat; the spring variety especially is employed for this purpose, in case apprehension is entertained lest the wheat crop should prove too small.

In Pennsylvania, the reports relative to this crop were favorable. The average yield was about fifteen bushels on the whole aggregate, though, in some instances, twenty-five or more were mentioned. In the State of New York, we should judge the average per acre may have been larger,

but in many sections of this State little or none is raised. The same is the case with the New England States, where, however, it is oftener used as a breadstuff. In Connecticut, the amount produced, compared with wheat and the other grains, is large, and yielded an increase upon the crop of 1845. In Maine, it suffered from having been winter-killed in the more northern parts of the State. In New Jersey, it partook much of the result of the States adjoining. Virginia raises a small proportionate crop of rye as compared with wheat, and two-thirds of the whole amount produced in that State is in the western district. In the eastern section of the State, for some years past, the rye crop has failed, and thus but little has been sown. Taking the whole aggregate product of the State, it was estimated to have been better than in the year 1845. In Kentucky and Ohio, and the other Western States, though in some instances it is thought to have decreased, yet, on the whole, there was probably a small gain. In Indiana, the rye crop of a few counties is considered to have been twice as great as in 1845. The general average per acre at the West would seem to be about fifteen bushels.

The growth of rye throughout the United States in 1847 was 29,222,700 bushels.

BUCKWHEAT. In those States where buckwheat is most raised, the failure of the wheat crop in some instances led the farmer to resort to this grain to supply the deficiency. In consequence of this, there was more raised than there otherwise would have been. In the two States of New York and Pennsylvania, where more than one-half of the whole buckwheat crop is produced, this was especially the case. In both of these States it is believed that, in 1847, there was a considerable advance upon the crop of 1845. The average amount per acre was variously estimated at from fifteen to twenty-five bushels. The quality was likewise good, and, in this respect, it was superior to former crops. In New England there is somewhat more attention directed to the cultivation of buckwheat than formerly, and, with few exceptions, it would seem to have been quite successful. In some instances, in Ohio and Indiana, the gain is represented as very large, two or three times as much as the usual crop, and often from 25 to 50 per cent. The reason assigned is the aspect of the wheat crop early in the season. The number of bushels per acre is variously stated from twenty-five and thirty, up to fifty. Taking the aggregate in all the States, it is thought that the increase on the crop since 1845 has been about 15 per cent. There is besides, no doubt, considerable buckwheat sown which is never harvested, but turned in upon the land to serve as manure, or top-dressing to other crops. Many farmers find their advantage in this application of its growth.

Its use as a breadstuff is confined principally to the cakes which are made of it.

The growth of the United States for 1847 was estimated at 11,673,500 bushels.

MAIZE, OR INDIAN CORN. The amount raised in 1847 is believed to be unexampled in the history of this product in the United States. The increasing demand for it, together with the anticipated loss on the wheat crop, induced the planting of a much larger breadth of land. Though the cold and backward spring rendered the planting season a week or two later, yet the months of June, July, and August were most favorable to the progress of its growth, and all will recollect how, in almost every part

of our widely extended country, the information which was circulated respecting the corn crop, spoke of its prospect of an abundant yield. That prospect was fully realized. Even the frosts of September held off, in most cases, till the grain had obtained its maturity, and thus was out of the reach of danger.

New England raises a fair proportion of corn, as compared with other products of the earth. Probably nearly the whole of it is consumed within her own borders. The varieties which are most favorable for the northern climate of these States, are the yellow, as distinguished from the southern white kinds. They contain more oil and gluten, but less farinaceous properties than the latter.

The information from Maine represented the increase of this crop for 1847, over that of 1845, to have generally been from 25 to 50 per cent, and in the northern county of Piscataquis it was placed as high as double. In New Hampshire, where a similar increase of a quarter at least was admitted, the prospect of new railroads was also supposed to have exerted considerable influence in some parts of the State. The increase of laborers to be sustained while the works were going on, and the additional facilities of markets furnished when completed, are thought to be the result of these improvements, and thus their action on the increase of this crop may be accounted for. In the other States of New England, also, the advance on the crop of 1845 is variously estimated from 20 to 25 per cent, and the average amount of a good crop is set down in New England as from twenty-five up to fifty bushels, though much larger ones are sometimes raised. Premium crops, indeed, in favorable locations, and attended to with more than ordinary care, often reach to seventy-five or eighty, and sometimes one hundred bushels per acre. The State of New York is a large producer of corn, though comparatively it does not hold the rank which wheat does. The average estimates, in different parts of the State, are one-quarter to one-half more, and there was a general increase in the surface planted. The eight and twelve rowed yellow seemed to be favorite varieties in most cases. The average product of a good yield is given at from forty up to sixty, though the common one is probably about twenty-five bushels per acre. Similar, also, were the accounts from New Jersey. There was a decided increase in the number of acres planted, and the product was excellent. In all parts of the State of Pennsylvania the crop of corn seems to have been abundant. The estimated increase varied generally from one-third, up to 40, 50, and even 100 per cent. In the fine county of Lancaster, sometimes called the garden of the State, it is said that there was one-third more than was ever raised, as probably one-third more ground was planted, and the increase was 10 per cent more per acre. In many instances sixty bushels were raised to the acre, where ordinarily not more than twenty-five or thirty are raised. The moist weather in August, as well as the favorable season previous, are likewise mentioned as causes of the increase in the western parts of the State. In some cases in Maryland, the corn crop was represented as being short, and that there was an unusual amount of damaged grain. This, however, was local, and, upon the whole, the crop throughout the State exhibited a fair increase. In Virginia, and more especially the western part of it, the increase of the corn crop over that of 1845 appears to have been large. In North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, and Alabama, the corn crop of 1845 suffered extremely from the unusual

drought. The crops of the year 1847, on the contrary, have been far better than usual. The general estimate, however, in all these States, is about one-third increase over that of 1845. Louisiana raises a very good crop of corn for home consumption, though not equal, indeed, to that of Mississippi and Arkansas. In these States, likewise, there was an increase varying from 20 to 33½ per cent more than the crop of 1845. Tennessee stands foremost among the States of this Union in the amount of corn produced. The estimate of 1845 may have been too large, but there has been some advance on the crop of that year, not so large it would seem, however, as in some of the other States. In Kentucky, the fine season was stated to have been favorable to the crop. The increase above that of 1845 is variously estimated at from 15 to 30 per cent. The acreable product is given at about thirty to forty bushels. Ohio produces a heavy corn crop, and the account of the success of this product for 1847 was very favorable. The acreable product in this State was generally returned as forty bushels. Similar favorable accounts represent the crop of Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, as generally very large. The failure of the wheat crop, and the increased consumption from the increase of population, combined with the foreign exportation, created a large demand, and led to much more being planted, while the toil of the husbandman in this respect was greatly blessed. The acreable amount, as given, varies from forty to fifty bushels in many instances; in others, it did not reach higher than twenty to thirty. Large crops, however, were sometimes raised, exceeding one hundred bushels to the acre. The crops of Wisconsin and Iowa seem to have suffered somewhat from the cold and backward season, but, upon the whole, there was a decided increase, and, in some instances, it was estimated as high as 100 per cent. The acreable product varied from thirty to forty, and up to sixty-five bushels per acre. In Michigan there was more corn planted than in 1845, and the product was much larger. The average product per acre was estimated as being forty or fifty bushels in many parts, and the whole increase as not less than 40 or 50, up to 100 per cent.

The estimate which was given of the corn crop may not have corresponded with that which was formed by some. It has been placed as high as 600,000,000 bushels, and again lower than our number. Some allowance must be made in comparing estimates for the time they are made. It has been stated, on good authority, that a bushel of corn, from the time of its being harvested until it is thoroughly dry, will shrink 22 per cent. Hence, there must be deducted from the earlier statement of crops about one-fifth. This may account for the fact that the amount of export does not exhibit the true proportion of the crop gathered. Besides that which is gathered in its grain, there is also a very considerable quantity which is destroyed by soiling; not being suffered to come to the seed, or, if so, not harvested. This practice prevails, probably, more at the South and West than in other portions of our country; but the fact deserves notice when adverting to the various products which constitute our agricultural resources for the use of man and beast.

Many instances might be mentioned of the uncommon size of single ears or large crops of corn. The editor of the *Ohio Cultivator* mentions a part of a seed ear which weighed two pounds, was twelve inches in length, nearly ten inches in circumference, the number of grains 1,446, three-fourths of an inch in length, and the corn on the ear measured above

a quart when shelled. It was of a kind which requires to be planted early, about the middle of April, in Ohio, for a good crop. Another ear, raised by another gentleman, and of a different variety, as it would seem, was mentioned as being sixteen inches in length, containing 1,006 grains. A specimen of Indian corn also was exhibited at an agricultural show, having twelve ears on one stalk. The same journal mentions a crop, raised in Scioto county, of one hundred and sixty bushels of corn on an acre of land. It is presumed that, of course, this means ears before being shelled. The growth of corn during part of the last summer was most rapid, and some statements respecting it may prove interesting in this connection. In Massachusetts, a person in Amherst is stated to have noted the growth of a single stalk during three days, as follows: First day, six inches; second, five and a half; the third, five—total, sixteen and a half inches in three days. In a Rochester journal it is said that, on observing, for many days in July, the progress of corn, five inches was the maximum for twenty-four hours. Contrary to the common idea, that plants do not grow except in the light of day, the observer found that both corn and grape-vines increased quite as fast from 8 P. M. to 4 A. M., as during any portion of the sixteen hours from 4 A. M. to 8 P. M.

It is believed that increased attention is paid to the cultivation of *broom corn*, as well as to its manufacture, which appears to be very profitable in some parts of the Union. This plant is of a different genus from the maize, and is said to be a native of India; the statement that they will mix is denied very emphatically by high authority. The quantity of brooms turned out is one hundred and fifty thousand dozen per annum. They are made in the winter. The stalks are left on the ground and ploughed in the next spring, thus keeping up the fertility of the soil. The origin of broom corn as a cultivated product of this country, is, in Watson's *Annals of Philadelphia*, attributed to Doctor Franklin. He is said to have accidentally seen an imported whisk of it in the possession of a lady of Philadelphia, and while examining it as a curiosity, took a seed which he planted, and from this small beginning has sprung the present product of this article in the United States. There are no means of ascertaining the number of acres devoted to it, nor the amount of product in value, but it must be very considerable. It is raised in Ohio, in some of the New England States, and in New York and Pennsylvania.

The quantity of maize or Indian corn raised in the United States in 1847 was 539,350,000 bushels.

POTATOES. The time was when this crop was numbered among the most successful. But within a few years there has been a sorrowful change, and throughout almost the whole extent of the country where the common potato is cultivated, instead of ascertaining the amount of the crop, our attention is rather demanded to learn the amount of the loss suffered. The loss of this crop falls heavily on the State of Maine and the New England States generally. In Maine, it was ascertained that the crop of 1847 was 50 per cent less than that of 1845, and 90 per cent less than that of 1843. The average number of bushels, also, was estimated at not more than twenty bushels to the acre. In New Hampshire and Vermont, with the other States of New England, the estimate of the loss varied. Perhaps the amount of the loss was not, on the whole, so great in Connecticut as in the other States. For some reason or other, the more northern sections of the country seemed to have suffered most;

25 and 30 per cent decrease from the crop of 1845 was the common estimate, where the usual product had been from one hundred to one hundred and eighty bushels. The loss on the crop of 1847 in the State of New York is variously estimated, say from 25 to 60 per cent. In New Jersey and Pennsylvania, the result was similar. The potato rot seemed likewise to have been felt to a considerable extent among the common potato, when cultivated in Maryland. It has not heretofore prevailed with very great severity in this State, but it has been gradually extending its attacks further to the south and west every year. In the western parts of Virginia, the loss by rot was estimated at one-third. In the eastern counties, it is stated that the productiveness was good, but they sustained loss after they had matured. The sweet potato crop of South Carolina was represented as having been a very fine one, in some instances double or treble that of 1845. The Irish potato, where raised, likewise were fine. In Georgia and Alabama, the sweet potato crop yielded a handsome increase upon 1845. In Louisiana the result was favorable; in this State the potato is planted in January. In Tennessee and Kentucky the average product per acre was from fifty to two hundred bushels, and yielded an increase of from 10 to 25 per cent on 1845. The Ohio potato crop suffered, in particular sections of the State, to some considerable extent. The evil, however, was less in others, and instances were known of a decided increase. The loss does not appear to have been so great in Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, as in Ohio and the Eastern States; the loss by rot in these States was estimated at from 10 to 25 per cent. The disease was felt somewhat this year in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa, but the result on the whole was favorable.

The entire product of potatoes in the United States for 1847 was 100,965,000 bushels.

HAY. The cultivated crop is confined principally to the New England and Middle States, with one or two of the North-western. In Maine, the increase upon 1845 was estimated at from 10 to 25 per cent, and the average crop per acre was estimated at from one to one and a half tons per acre, though sometimes three or more tons are raised. In the other New England States the increase was about 20 per cent. The general average product may be fixed at about one to two tons per acre. In New York the increase was variously estimated from 10 to 20, 25, and even 50 per cent. In one section of Pennsylvania there was represented to have been some decrease, owing to the drought and cold spring; but in others, it was supposed there was some 10, 20, or 30 per cent increase. As we proceed on towards the South, we believe that there was some gain upon the crop of 1845. Ohio cultivates a moderate quantity of hay compared with other crops, but the increase was supposed to have been 20 or 25 per cent. The hay crop of Indiana and Illinois, with scarcely an exception, appears to have been a good one, and in comparison of the crop of 1845, there was an increase of 20, 25, 30, or 50 per cent. In Michigan, likewise, the crop was generally considered a good one, and in some cases double that of 1845. It is a crop, however, which excites much less interest than many others, and therefore it is difficult to form any very accurate judgment respecting it. In the whole aggregate of the United States, our impression is, that it will be found to have been a better crop than that of 1845, though probably the increase was not very large.

The amount of the product of hay in the United States in 1847 was estimated at 13,819,900 tons.

HEMP. The crop of hemp in 1847 was not a large one. Less was sown, and the product was small. In Kentucky, it was variously estimated at from 15,000 to 20,000 tons, and the whole hemp crop of the United States in 1847 was estimated at about 30,000 tons.

FLAX. Considerable attention is paid to the cultivation of this article in the United States, not only for the sake of the fibre as a material for thread, but likewise for the seed on account of its oil. In the State of New York, there is a considerable amount raised for that purpose. In Ohio, likewise, it seems to be an object of interest, and the profits received from it are said to be very good. Preble county, in that State, is thought to be the greatest flax growing district in the United States. If some better method could be devised for preparing the lint, it would be yet more profitable. Lint from the brake is considered worth \$15 per ton.

The number of pounds of flaxseed raised in the United States in 1847 was about 6,000,000.

TOBACCO. There appears to have been, for the last few years, a decline of prices in this article, and that, with the increased demand for other products, has diverted attention from the raising of this plant. It is believed, therefore, that the crop has lessened. There is more attention paid to it in some of the New England States, but the quantity grown there is too small to make any very sensible difference in the aggregate amount. The quantity per acre is probably considerably larger than in the great tobacco-growing States. In the Albany Cultivator mention is made of some successful experiments of this culture in Massachusetts. The variety produced is known, says the account, as the "Connecticut seed leaf," and it usually brings double the price, or more, of the tobacco grown in Virginia or Kentucky. For a profitable crop, rich land is necessary, though sandy soils, manured at the rate of ten or twenty common two-horse or oxen loads per acre, will produce well. With good management, the yield is from 1,500 to 2,000 pounds per acre of marketable tobacco, at an average price of eight cents per pound. The year 1847 is believed to have given some increase over 1845. In New York some attention is paid to its cultivation. The same may be said of Pennsylvania. In Maryland, the high price of wheat, rye, oats, and corn, induced a neglect of the culture of tobacco, so that the crop of the State did not exceed 20,000 hogsheads. In Virginia, the same causes which operated to reduce the quantity of acres planted in Maryland, seem likewise to have exerted an influence in this State, and for the most part there has been a decrease in the product. The crop of 1846 yielded 52,000 hogsheads, but in 1847 it was estimated as low as 40,000 hogsheads. The crop in North Carolina was much the same as in Virginia. The quantity raised in South Carolina is so small as to exercise very little influence on the general result. In Georgia, Alabama, and Mississippi, there was probably an increased product per acre, but the attention of planters was turned to other and more important crops. In Tennessee and Kentucky, the crop prospered. In Ohio, the crop was estimated at from 6,000 to 8,000 hogsheads. In Indiana and Illinois, the result was as usual. The tobacco crop of Missouri is one of some importance, and it is believed succeeded as well as usual. The culture of this plant is increasing in Florida. The amount raised in Louisiana is exceedingly small. The consumption of

tobacco is large in foreign countries, as well as in our own. The contract for the French government, taken some time since, amounted to nearly 22,000,000 pounds. Great Britain consumed in 1846 26,557,000 pounds.

The product of tobacco in the United States in 1847 was 220,164,000 pounds.

COTTON. Beginning with South Carolina, although the rains in the early part of the season in 1847 proved somewhat injurious, yet the weather for gathering was most favorable, and therefore the crop was fully equal to that of 1846. In Georgia and Alabama, it was about an average one. The crops of Mississippi and Louisiana suffered from the same causes as Georgia and Alabama. Mississippi produces full one-half of all the cotton sold in New Orleans. The crop of Louisiana appears to have been a good one, and probably much better than that of 1846.

The attempts of the English to raise a competition of cotton grown in India, has hitherto been unsuccessful. There seems some reason to believe that cotton may yet be cultivated in Turkey, and probably in some parts of Africa; but many years must elapse, even should these attempts be successful, before any competition can be feared from these parts of the world to our own cotton-growing States.

The product of cotton in the United States for 1847 was 1,041,500,000 pounds.

RICE. The amount of this crop is determined principally by the success or failure of its growth in South Carolina. The crop of 1847 in that State was estimated at 130,000 barrels, allowing 600 pounds nett to a barrel, it having been slightly lessened by the August freshet.

The product of rice in the United States in 1847 was 103,040,500 barrels.

SILK. The culture of this article is undoubtedly on the increase in many of our States, and especially in the New England States, in New York, Pennsylvania, and somewhat more attended to in certain of the Western and Southern States. The efforts which are made by our silk-growers in this country to attain increased perfection, are encouragingly successful. To show the progress of the production of this article in England, it is said to be a well known fact, that a pair of silk stockings presented to Queen Elizabeth was worth their weight in gold. Now, however, Mr. McCulloch estimates the consumption of silk stockings and gloves alone, annually, to be £2,500,000, or \$12,000,000.

The number of pounds of silk cocoons raised in the United States in 1847 was 404,600.

SUGAR. This is a crop, which, so far as regards that made from the cane, is almost confined to Louisiana. Fourteen out of the twenty-three parishes in that State produce \$10,000,000 worth of sugar per annum. The theory is now exploded which maintained that sugar could only be produced on alluvial soil. The experiment has been successfully tried on the high grounds back of Baton Rouge and above Bayou Sara, and still higher up on the Red River. The large increase of the sugar crop is doubtless owing to the improvements which have been made in the methods of manufacture. The attention of individuals also, in Georgia, Alabama, and Florida, is turning somewhat more towards sugar, as a product which may be successfully cultivated in those States. Texas will, however, be eventually the greatest rival of Louisiana in the sugar culture.

The steady advance in improvement in Louisiana, affords encouragement to believe that the time may not be far distant when this State, aided by Florida and Texas, will be able to furnish enough to meet all the demands for consumption of this article in the United States. This would be a very desirable consummation, not merely on account of the growing prosperity of Louisiana, but as occasioning still increased exchange of products from other States.

The following, taken from the New Orleans Price Current of September 1st, 1847, exhibits the amount of the crops of this State for many years past:—

	Hhds.		Hhds.		Hhds.
Crop of 1828.....	88,000	Crop of 1836.....	70,000	Crop of 1842.....	140,000
" 1829.....	48,000	" 1837.....	65,000	" 1843.....	100,000
" 1832.....	70,000	" 1838.....	70,000	" 1844.....	200,000
" 1833.....	75,000	" 1839.....	115,000	" 1845.....	186,000
" 1834.....	100,000	" 1840.....	87,000	" 1846.....	200,000
" 1835.....	30,000	" 1841.....	90,000	" 1847.....	240,000

In 1844, the whole amount produced from all the sugar growing countries in the world was set down at 778,000 tons, of which 200,000 were supplied by Cuba alone. It is probable that by this time, therefore, it can scarcely be less than 850,000 to 900,000 tons, if we include beet and maple sugar. It is estimated that Great Britain consumes as much as 250,000 tons, the rest of Europe 450,000, the United States 150,000 to 160,000 tons or more, and Canada and the other British Colonies 25,000 tons.

The amount of beet-root sugar made in France in 1846-47 was estimated at 107,190,110 pounds, being an increase of 26,596,432 pounds on the quantity manufactured the previous year. This article shows the importance of perseverance in such experiments as hold out the probability of success. It is well known, as a fact of history, that the origin of this manufacture, as a national one, sprung from the necessities of the French people, when, in their wars, they were cut off from the usual supplies of cane sugar by the West Indies. It is not less, too, a matter of record, how great was the ridicule cast upon the Emperor Napoleon for his efforts by way of encouragement to this business. But the best science of that cultivated nation was brought to bear upon it, one difficulty after another disappeared, and now it has become a constantly enlarging and lucrative branch of business, not only supplying the means of livelihood to multitudes, but, in a measure, relieving the whole realm from dependence on foreign nations for this useful article of subsistence and luxury. Were equal industry and science applied in this country, either to the manufacture of beet or corn-stalk sugar, it is believed that the most important results might be effected. In some future years, very probably, such may be the case. We have not heard of any experiments lately in reference to the latter article. As 1847 was so fine a one for the growth of the corn crop, had there been attention given to experiments respecting maize sugar, it is not improbable that they might have been crowned with success. But so long as incredulity bars out effort, or rather there is no immediate necessity to aid in overcoming it, but little can be expected. Yet the success of the first crude trials which have been made, has been fully equal to that of the earliest attempts respecting the manufacture of the beet sugar, and enough to warrant the

most sanguine expectations. That a syrup or molasses can be made from the corn-stalk, seems to be readily admitted. That sugar has been made, is equally certain; that it may become a profitable object for the agriculturist, will doubtless be demonstrated, when a more determined effort has been made to remove the difficulties and overcome the obstacles which have hitherto impeded the graining of the syrup.

Much encouragement might also be drawn from the improvement which has taken place in the manufacture of *maple* sugar. It is but a few years since the highest reach of art in this manufacture produced only a fine muscovado-like sugar, and now, by the improved processes, specimens are annually exhibited at the agricultural fairs, vying with the most beautiful loaf sugar. This has been effected by greater attention to cleanliness in the preparation of the sap, and the improvements in the methods of graining and refining the sugar. There is considerable difficulty in estimating the amount of maple sugar produced. In most of the older States, the increased cutting of timber will tend yearly to lessen the amount. When foreign sugar is high, or when there is a short crop abroad, there will naturally be a greater attention paid to the maple sugar as a supply for the deficiency. In 1847, in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont, it is believed there has been a slight increase; a lessened crop in the rest of New England, New York, and most of the Middle States; that the same has been the case in Ohio; about the same, or perhaps a better crop in Indiana and Illinois; and an increased quantity in Michigan, Iowa, and Wisconsin.

The product of sugar in the United States for 1847 was 324,940,500 pounds.

OTHER PRODUCTS. Besides the crops which have already passed under notice, there are others which contribute not a little to the agricultural resources of our country, and which are too important to be passed over in silence. Some of these have, for a long time, held a place in the list of agricultural products raised by our farmers and planters. Others have been but recently introduced, and are but partially cultivated. Among the different crops in question, there are, likewise, some of them which are adapted to particular sections, as being unable to bear the severity of a colder climate, while others may flourish with equal success in all parts of the Union. It is customary among writers to divide the remaining crops into the root crops, the pod fruits, the oil or drug plants, and the productions of the orchard and garden. The root crop includes the turnip, the beet, the carrot, the parsnip, ruta бага, mangel wurtzel and artichokes; and their use is great as helping to furnish a substitute for other fodder for animals, as well as contributing in a lesser degree more directly to the sustenance of mankind. The product of beets in New York State ranges from 600 to 1,200 bushels. *Carrots* form a rich food for cows; and it is stated that, upon the farm of E. Hasket Derby, Esq., at West Newton, Mass., who received the premium of the Middlesex Society, they yielded at the rate of 1,080 bushels to the acre. The *artichoke* has also received a share of attention, as a means of meeting the deficiency from the potato crop. The *pod fruits*, such as peas and beans, are not cultivated, generally, to any great extent, except in gardens. In the Southern States, however, the pea appears to hold an important place. In some counties of Virginia, it ranks next to the corn crop. The class of plants which rank under the name of cabbage plants are cultivated to a limited

extent, but furnish a considerable amount of products both for the use of man and the domestic animals. Large quantities, likewise, of pumpkins are often raised for the use of stock. J. B. Noll, of Monroe county, Ohio, raised 19,000 pounds on seventy-seven rods of land, besides seventy bushels of potatoes, which would give of pumpkins at the rate of fifteen tons to the acre. The onion, also, yields abundantly, particularly in Connecticut. Asparagus is cultivated principally for table purposes, and is exceedingly prized as a healthy esculent. The oil plants, as they are termed, are quite numerous, though but little has yet been done in cultivating them in the country. Corn and straw fodder enter largely into the conduct of the farm, and yet, important as it is, no account has ever been taken of it, by which an approximate estimate can be formed of its amount.

There are a variety of *trees* which may yet deserve attention in parts of our country, and were they once introduced, it seems probable that they might be made profitable. The English *walnut* has been recommended as highly suitable for Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, where the raising of this fruit might be made lucrative. A single tree sometimes, it is said, yields twenty-four bushels. *Apples*, indeed, are not so much cultivated as formerly for making cider, but greater attention is paid to some fine table fruit. The *peach* crop of Delaware is estimated to be worth \$120,000 per annum. The peach orchards of Ohio are also large, where they have been raised fourteen inches in circumference. On Long Island there is an orchard, from eight acres of which, at the second bearing, the owner would reap about \$1,250. It is surprising, also, what quantities of strawberries find their way to the markets of our cities. It has been ascertained that, in twenty-six days, 4,572 bushels were sold in New York; 514 bushels in a single day. Over 80,000 baskets, equal to 833 bushels, and weighing probably twenty-five tons, were brought to that city in one day over the Erie Railroad alone. Large quantities of this fruit are also gathered and sold in Cincinnati.

The attention to the cultivation of the *grape*, both for the purposes of the table and the manufacture of wine, seems to be on the increase. Large quantities of this fine fruit are sold in the markets of our large cities. The grape grows most luxuriantly in Florida and in Alabama. But Texas excels all other parts of the Union for producing the grape-vine, where the variety of kinds is large and the quality of these kinds superior. The grape is cultivated in every State in the Union. In the New England States the *Isabella* is the most common variety, and is supposed to be a native of North Carolina. It first obtained its well deserved notoriety at Brooklyn, in the garden of George Gibbs, Esq., and derived its new name from his lady, Mrs. Isabella Gibbs, who was instrumental in obtaining it from the South for her garden. The original parent of all the *Isabella* vines in the Northern States, may now be seen in the garden of the late Zachariah Lewis, Esq., on Brooklyn Heights.

Almost every one feels the necessity of some yearly compilation of the varied resources of our several States, and could there be procured from every State in the Union the statistics of its progress in industrial pursuits, and especially in agriculture, it would be a great acquisition, particularly if these could be condensed and a suitable summary of the same be made and yearly published. Not only the members of our national legislature, but very many of our fellow citizens in various parts of the

country would find such a condensed view useful ; and showing, as it might at a glance, the mutual dependence of all parts of this great republic, it would tend to bind together the various sections in firmer union. To the nations abroad, it would present such an increasing development of our resources as would lead them to study the means by which our prosperity was obtained, and seek, it may be, to emulate our example ; while our influence would be felt in its happiest form, by our standing forth in emergencies of great need, to become, as it were, the almoners of a kind Providence to famishing realms.

We subjoin a tabular estimate of the crops of the United States for 1847, taken from the report of the Commissioner of Patents :—

TABULAR ESTIMATE OF CROPS IN THE UNITED STATES.

State or Territory.	No. of bush. of wheat.	No. of bush. of barley.	No. of bush. of oats.	No. of bush. of rye.
Maine.....	890,000	286,650	1,720,000	195,000
New Hampshire.....	610,000	129,150	2,100,000	460,000
Massachusetts.....	256,000	170,100	2,000,000	620,000
Rhode Island.....	4,500	54,000	210,000	50,000
Connecticut.....	125,000	28,900	1,810,000	1,200,000
Vermont.....	664,000	55,000	3,905,000	350,000
New York.....	14,500,000	3,931,000	26,200,000	3,650,000
New Jersey.....	1,100,000	10,000	5,228,000	3,050,000
Pennsylvania.....	14,150,000	150,000	18,835,000	12,000,000
Delaware.....	410,000	4,400	650,000	55,000
Maryland.....	4,960,000	2,900	1,860,000	975,000
Virginia.....	12,000,000	90,000	10,000,000	1,500,000
North Carolina.....	2,350,000	4,000	3,507,000	235,000
South Carolina.....	1,300,000	4,500	1,000,000	54,000
Georgia.....	1,950,000	12,300	1,140,000	70,000
Alabama.....	1,200,000	7,500	1,831,000	75,000
Mississippi.....	500,000	2,000	1,378,000	23,000
Louisiana.....	2,200
Tennessee.....	8,750,000	6,500	9,918,000	390,000
Kentucky.....	6,000,000	18,000	14,100,000	2,650,000
Ohio.....	16,800,000	240,000	26,500,000	1,000,000
Indiana.....	7,500,000	39,000	15,290,000	250,000
Illinois.....	4,900,000	116,000	4,200,000	155,000
Missouri.....	1,750,000	13,000	6,020,000	86,000
Arkansas.....	200,000	1,000	440,000	10,000
Michigan.....	8,000,000	210,000	5,500,000	90,000
Florida.....	10,000
Wisconsin Territory...	1,200,000	30,000	1,500,000	8,000
Iowa.....	1,000,000	35,000	1,000,000	12,000
Texas.....	1,110,000
District of Columbia...	16,000	15,000	7,500
Oregon.....	50,000
Total.....	114,245,500	5,649,950	167,867,000	29,222,700

TABULAR ESTIMATE OF CROPS IN THE UNITED STATES—CONTINUED.

State or Territory.	No. of bush. els buckwheat.	No. of bush. Indian corn.	No. of bush. potatoes.	No. of tons of hay.	No. of tons of hemp.
Maine.....	76,000	2,890,000	7,800,000	1,113,000
New Hampshire.....	169,000	2,280,000	4,655,000	606,000
Massachusetts.....	138,000	3,410,000	4,308,000	682,000
Rhode Island.....	4,500	800,000	730,000	71,000
Connecticut.....	480,000	3,180,000	2,832,000	550,000
Vermont.....	330,000	2,100,000	7,086,000	1,250,000
New York.....	3,660,000	16,000,000	24,000,000	3,800,000
New Jersey.....	980,000	8,000,000	1,850,000	434,000
Pennsylvania.....	3,600,000	20,200,000	7,600,000	1,720,000
Delaware.....	14,000	3,620,000	160,000	20,000

TABULAR ESTIMATE OF CROPS IN THE UNITED STATES—CONTINUED.

State or Territory.	No. of bush. els buckwheat.	No. of bush. Indian corn.	No. of bush. potatoes.	No. of tons of hay.	No. of tons of hemp.
Maryland.....	115,000	8,300,000	900,000	125,000
Virginia.....	260,000	36,500,000	2,950,000	400,000
North Carolina.....	18,000	25,000,000	2,600,000	136,000
South Carolina.....	12,600,000	3,500,000	30,000
Georgia.....	25,000,000	1,840,000	24,000
Alabama.....	26,000,000	2,150,000	18,000
Mississippi.....	16,000,000	2,050,000	800
Louisiana.....	9,000,000	1,300,000	27,000
Tennessee.....	28,000	74,000,000	2,700,000	45,000	1,000
Kentucky.....	16,000	62,000,000	1,810,000	130,000	15,000
Ohio.....	1,200,000	66,000,000	4,644,000	1,400,000	600
Indiana.....	100,000	38,000,000	2,350,000	385,000	550
Illinois.....	120,000	33,000,000	2,100,000	365,000	600
Missouri.....	25,000	25,000,000	1,050,000	80,000	10,000
Arkansas.....	7,000,000	520,000	1,100
Michigan.....	290,000	6,500,000	4,980,000	260,000
Florida.....	1,000,000	350,000	1,200
Wisconsin Territory..	30,000	1,000,000	1,080,000	96,000
Iowa.....	20,000	2,900,000	850,000	40,000
Texas.....	1,500,000	200,000
District of Columbia..	45,000	20,000	1,800
Oregon.....	525,000
Total.....	11,673,500	539,350,000	100,965,000	13,819,900	27,750

TABULAR ESTIMATE OF CROPS IN THE UNITED STATES—CONTINUED.

State or Territory.	No. of pounds of tobacco.	No. of pounds of cotton.	No. of pounds of rice.	No. of pounds silk cocoons.	No. of pounds of sugar.
Maine.....	550	500,000
New Hampshire.....	880	2,225,000
Massachusetts.....	135,000	40,000	530,000
Rhode Island.....	960
Connecticut.....	806,000	200,000	45,000
Vermont.....	8,000	10,500,000
New York.....	30,000	5,000	12,800,000
New Jersey.....	4,500
Pennsylvania.....	600,000	35,000	2,000,000
Delaware.....	3,600
Maryland.....	25,000,000	7,900
Virginia.....	50,000,000	2,500,000	3,000	6,350	1,750,000
North Carolina.....	14,000,000	42,000,000	3,500,000	6,200	15,000
South Carolina.....	35,000	100,000,000	78,000,000	5,800	35,000
Georgia.....	205,000	210,000,000	15,500,000	6,000	370,000
Alabama.....	350,000	160,000,000	300,000	5,880	15,000
Mississippi.....	200,000	250,000,000	1,000,000	250
Louisiana.....	135,000	195,000,000	4,000,000	1,200	275,000,000
Tennessee.....	35,000,000	35,000,000	10,000	20,000	530,000
Kentucky.....	65,000,000	2,000,000	20,000	4,400	3,000,000
Ohio.....	9,000,000	35,000	5,000,000
Indiana.....	3,880,000	800	6,400,000
Illinois.....	1,288,000	7,500	3,200	615,000
Missouri.....	14,000,000	230	500,000
Arkansas.....	200,000	20,000,000	260	5,500
Michigan.....	1,500	3,260,000
Florida.....	300,000	15,000,000	700,000	500	300,000
Wisconsin Territory..	40	350,000
Iowa.....	175,000
Texas.....	10,000,000	20,000
District of Columbia..	600
Oregon.....
Total.....	220,164,000	1,041,500,000	103,040,500	404,600	324,940,500

ART. III.—TRIALS AND TRIUMPHS OF AMERICAN GENIUS IN ENGLAND.

THOSE who have read the narrative of the sufferings of ragged and hungry Genius, as told by the sufferers themselves in Johnson's *Life of Savage* and in Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield*, will listen to the following letter, addressed to a distinguished gentleman in this country, a chapter of autobiography, with like interest; for, like those narratives, it not only describes the trials, but is written, also, with the energetic pen of Genius.

The writer is Mr. J. R. Remington, a young man, a Virginian by birth. After residing for a while in Alabama, a few years since he went to Washington, and exhibited there the models and drawings of several ingenious and (as they have since proved) valuable mechanical inventions of his own. At Washington he made little headway. One of his inventions was a bridge, constructed on a novel principle, or rather a principle newly applied, and by which bridges of timber of great length can be thrown across rivers and wide railroad cuts without intermediate support. People looked and admired; but somehow, although they saw much that was strikingly original, they could not see how the contrivances were to be made practically useful. Fulton's first steamboat drew crowds of such admirers round it when it was on the stocks.

Mr. Remington was not discouraged. We are sometimes apt to look upon the mechanical and mathematical turn of mind as naturally dry, crabbed, and cold. Yet there can be no doubt (and a multitude of brilliant examples, of late years, attest the fact) that the great mechanical inventor is borne up by as much of the "ardor of confident genius," the "evidence of things not seen," and feels as sensibly "the substance of things hoped for" as the great poet, or any of those whom we are more apt to class among geniuses of more exalted mood. The source of the mistake seems to be the very excess of imagination in him, and the lack of it in us; while we, having eyes, see not the end, but the means only, he is looking at the end; while we think of the dull machinery and the uncouth figures with which he works, his thoughts are running forwards and soaring upwards to results worked out, complete!

Mr. Remington went to England, arriving in London early in January, 1847. He went, to use his striking language, in "search of a man;" like the old philosopher, he sought but for one mind capable of sympathetic appreciation. He carried with him his plans, a teeming brain, a letter of introduction, and an empty purse.

The story of Mr. Remington's success has been told by the lips of others, as was most meet; we leave it to himself to describe his struggles and probation. His letter would be marred by any attempt on our part to add or amplify.

STAFFORD, STAFFORDSHIRE, ENGLAND, August 15, 1848.

MY DEAR SIR:—I should have written sooner, but that I had nothing pleasant to say. I reached London on the 1st of January, 1847, without money or friends, which was just the thing I desired when I left America, and just the thing, I assure you, I will never desire again. I commenced operations at once, on the supposition that, in this overgrown city, I would at least enlist one man. But Englishmen are not Americans. An Englishman will advance any amount on an absolute certainty, but not one

penny where there is the slightest risk, if he got the whole world by it. I spent the first five months looking for this man with unparalleled perseverance and industry, living for less than three pence per day. I am convinced that few persons in London know so much of that incomprehensibly large city as myself. But, alas! my wardrobe was gone to supply me with wretchedly baked corn bread, on which I lived entirely. I slept on straw, for which I paid a half penny per night. I became ragged and filthy, and could no longer go among men of business. Up to this time my spirits never sunk, nor did they then; but my sufferings were great. My limbs distorted with rheumatism, induced by cold and exposure—my face and head swelled to a most unnatural size with cold and toothache, and those who slept in the same horrid den as myself were wretched street beggars, the very cleanest of them literally alive with all manner of creeping things. But I was *no* beggar. I never begged, nor ever asked a favor of any man since I came to England. Ask George Bancroft, who I called upon two or three times, if ever I asked the slightest favor, or even presumed upon the letter you gave me to him. I did write him a note, asking him to come and witness the triumph of opening the bridge at the Gardens, and delivered the note at his own house myself; and although Prince Albert came, I never got even a reply to my note. If Bancroft had come, and been the man to have only recognized me in my rags as I was, it would have saved me much subsequent suffering. I will not believe that Bancroft ever saw my note, for his deportment to me was ever kind.

The succeeding three months after the first five I will not detail, up to the time I commenced to build the bridge. I will not harrow up my feelings to write, nor pain your kind heart to read the incidents of those ninety days. My head turned grey, and I must have died but for the Jews, who did give me one shilling down for my acknowledgement for £10 on demand. These wicked robberies have amounted to several hundred pounds, every penny of which I have had to pay subsequently; for, since my success at Stafford, not a man in England who can read, but knows my address. It cost me £10 to obtain the shilling with which I paid my admittance into the Royal Zoological Gardens, where I succeeded, after much mortification, in getting the ghost of a model made of the bridge. The model, although a bad one, astonished everybody. Every engineer of celebrity in London was called in to decide whether it was practicable to throw it across the lake. Four or five of them, at the final decision, declared that the model before them was passing strange, but that it could not be carried to a much greater length than the length of the model. This was the point of *life* or *death* with me. I was standing amidst men of the supposed greatest talent as civil engineers that the world could produce, and the point decided against me! This one time alone were my whole energies ever aroused. I never talked before—I was haggard and faint for want of food—my spirits sunk in sorrow in view of my mournful prospects—clothes I had none—yet, standing over this model, did I battle with those men. Every word I uttered came from my inmost soul, and was big with truth—every argument carried conviction. The effect on those men was like magic—indeed, they must have been devils not to have believed under the circumstances. *I succeeded.* My agreement with the proprietor was, that I should superintend the construction of the bridge without any pay whatever, but during the time of the building I might

sleep in the Gardens, and if the bridge should succeed, it should be called "Remington's Bridge." I lodged in an old *lion's cage*, not strong enough for a lion, but by putting some straw on the floor, held me very well, and indeed was a greater luxury than I had for many months. The carpenters that worked on the bridge sometimes gave me part of their dinner. On this I lived, and was comparatively happy. It was a little novel, however, to see a man in rags directing gentlemanly looking head carpenters. The bridge triumphed, and the cost was £8, and was the greatest hit ever made in London. The money made by it is astonishingly great, thousands and tens of thousands crossing it, paying toll, besides being the great attraction to the Gardens. Not a publication in London but what has written largely upon it. Although I have never received a penny, nor never will for building the bridge, I have no fault to find with Mr. Tyler, the proprietor, for he has done all fully that he promised to do—that was, to call it "Remington's Bridge." The largest wood-cut perhaps ever made in the world, is made of the bridge. Every letter of my name is nearly as large as myself. The bridge to this day is the prominent curiosity of the Gardens. You can't open a paper but you may find "Remington's Bridge." Soon after it was built, I have frequently seen hundreds of men looking at the large picture of the bridge at the corners of the streets and envying Remington, when I have stood unknown in the crowd, literally starving. However, the great success of the bridge gave me some credit with a tailor. I got a suit of clothes and some shirts—a clean shirt. Any shirt was great, but a clean shirt—O God, what a luxury! Thousands of cards were left for me at the Gardens, and men came to see the bridge from all parts of the kingdom. But with all my due bills in the hands of the hell-born Jews, of course I had to slope, and came down to Stafford. I first built the mill, which is the most popular patent ever taken in England. The coffee pot, and many other small patents, take exceedingly well. The drainage of Tixall Meadows is the greatest triumph I have yet had in England. The carriage bridge for Earl Talbot is a most majestic and wonderfully beautiful thing. Dukes, marquesses, earls, lords, &c., and their ladies are coming to see it from all parts. I have now more orders for bridges from the aristocracy than I can execute in ten years, if I would do them. Indeed, I have been so much among the aristocracy of late, that what with high living, being so sudden a transition from starving, I have been compelled to go through a course of medicine, and am just now convalescent. Of course, anything once built precludes the possibility of taking a patent in England, but its merits and value are beyond all calculation. A permanent, beautiful, and steady bridge may be thrown across a river half a mile wide, out of the reach of floods and without anything touching the water, at the most inconsiderable expense. The American patent is well secured at home I know. I shall continue to build a few more bridges of larger and larger spans, and one of them a railroad bridge, in order that I may perfect myself in them so as to commence fair when I reach America. I have a great many more accounts of my exploits since I came to Stafford, but must defer sending them until next time. I beg you will write me, for now, since a correspondence is opened, I shall be able to tell you something about England. I know it well. I have dined with earls, and from that down—down—down—down to where the knives, forks, and plates are chained to the table for fear they should be stolen. I am, my dear sir, your obedient servant,

J. R. REMINGTON.

The bridge erected in the Surrey Gardens was described in the newspapers of the day with some minuteness. The London *Morning Advertiser* of September 7, 1847, speaks of it as follows:—

REMINGTON'S AERIAL BRIDGE. This very wonderful and highly ingenious structure, the model of which was described in the *Morning Advertiser* of Thursday last, was yesterday thrown open to the visitors at the Surrey Zoological Gardens, large numbers of whom repeatedly crossed and recrossed it, and expressed a general astonishment at the strength of a fabric composed of such slender materials. The inventor of this bridge is Mr. Remington, of Alabama, a gentleman who has perfected several contrivances of great utility in various departments of art, and who, in the present instance, has demonstrated the extent to which the economy of materials may be carried even in the greatest works. At the first view, Mr. Remington's bridge would impress the spectator with the idea that it was utterly inadequate to bear the weight of a solitary passenger; and after he has undeceived himself upon its capabilities in that respect, he will be completely at a loss to account for the prodigious strength which it exerts. On consideration, however, of the peculiarities of its construction, the difficulty will disappear, and the advantages of its application in a variety of circumstances be established. The chief portions of the fabric are the abutments, or wooden frames, from which the bridge is suspended, or rather, on which it rests. They are formed of a simple frame work of die-square timber, about twelve feet long, and sunk five feet in the ground. The timbers of each abutment are made to rake, or incline, at an angle of about seventy degrees from the river, for the purpose of better reacting against the tension of the bridge when loaded, and are strongly connected by cross scantlings. On the summit of each abutment is a rectangular frame, rising slightly towards the water way, and carrying two transverse scantlings, six feet apart. The four laths, or stringers, which form the basis of the footway, are laid upon these scantlings, to which they are keyed, and which give to the bridge the peculiar curve, on which its efficiency partly depends. But it is chiefly to the mode of forming the stringers that the ingenuity of the arrangement consists, and which, on several accounts, is remarkable. As it would be difficult, or frequently impossible, to procure pieces of wood of the required size to connect the abutments, recourse must be had to the process of scarfing, by the adoption of which, in this instance, stringers of 83 feet in length have been formed by Mr. Remington. They have been made in five scarfs, united by glue, made for the purpose by Mr. J. Lowe, the head carpenter of the Surrey Gardens, by whom the structure was made and put together, and possess throughout their length the longitudinal strength of fibre due to their thickness at each point. They vary considerably in their section, as it is taken from the centre, being three inches and three-quarters at each end, and only one inch square in the centre. These singularly small dimensions have nevertheless been found to carry several heavy loads, with which the efficiency of the structure has been tested. Transverse bars are tacked upon the stringers, at the interval of an inch or two, and with the addition of a rope on each side to serve as a rail, the bridge is complete. To understand how it happens that a combination of materials, apparently so frail, has carried sixteen men, each bearing timber, and that, as we are assured, and make no doubt of the statement, it is capable of bearing five hundred men, at the same time it must be understood, that the principal elements of the footway, viz, the stringers, are formed and arranged according to the known principles of a science of comparatively modern creation, embracing the facts relating to the strength of materials. The principle upon which the construction proceeds may be thus briefly explained:—A slender prismatic beam, though requiring great force to tear it longitudinally, would nevertheless easily give way to a transverse force very much smaller. If suspended by its extremities, and the force made to act at the centre, the rod would snap in the centre; but if one of the points of suspension were shifted, then it would snap near the other extremity. This circumstance is applied to the purpose of a permanent footway by the position of the scantlings, or fulcra, on which the stringers rest, and the operation of which is to

remove the tendency of the bridge to break in the centre, and throw that liability on the thicker portions, near the abutments, which are fully able to resist the strain. The stability of the structure may also be referred to another principle, viz, that a beam in a horizontal position, fixed at one end and pressed down at the other, is liable to break off near the fixed end. Here, by the scarfing of the stringers, the central scarf unites the two portions, into which each stringer may be supposed to be divided, and resists at a long leverage, its tendency to snap at the fulcrum. These considerations, though not of a very recondite character, are nevertheless necessary, to reconcile the spectator to what must strike him in the first instance as being nothing short of an anomaly in the laws of physics. But there the bridge is to assert by its astonishing performances, the truth and easy application of these simple principles, and the economy which it is possible to introduce into fabrics of the kind by their adoption. It only now remains to us to mention that Mr. Remington has abandoned to public service, all interest in this, and in several other useful inventions which he has completed, and to express our hope, that a man who has deserved well of his country, first by his labor in bringing his plans to so grand a result, and then by placing no restriction on their use, will reap in some shape his reward, or at any rate be esteemed an able and bold engineer."

This success led to something more substantial. The inventor was employed by Earl Talbot to erect a bridge 150 feet in length over the river Trent, on his estates in Staffordshire. The "novelty in bridge building" is thus noticed in the *Staffordshire Advertiser* of July 15, 1847:—

NOVELTY IN BRIDGE BUILDING. "We have lately described some of the wonderful bridges which a recent trip into North Wales had given us an opportunity of inspecting, including the tubular bridge over the Conway, and the Britannia tubular bridge now in course of erection, and designed to carry the Holyhead Railway over the Menai Straits. We have much satisfaction, this week, in bringing under the notice of our readers a work, in our own immediate neighborhood, which, though of much smaller dimensions, is as great a curiosity in its way, and perhaps as vast a triumph of scientific ingenuity and engineering skill as the gigantic structures to which we have alluded. We refer to a wooden bridge which has just been completed over the river Trent, near Ingestre, on an accommodation road of Earl Talbot's, leading from Ingestre to Shirleywich. The architect is Mr. J. R. Remington, a gentleman from Alabama, in the United States of America, of several of whose inventions we have before had occasion to speak.

"This bridge is remarkable for the length of its span, about 150 feet, and for the diminutive dimensions of the timber used in its construction. It will almost appear incredible to our readers when we state that the six stringers, or beams, which support the planks forming the floor of the bridge are but five inches square at each end, and gradually diminish in size, until at the centre they are only two and one-quarter inches, their length being, as already intimated, 150 feet. The stringers are formed of pieces of oak timber, each about 20 or 25 feet long, attached together by the method technically known as 'scarfing.' The abutments consist of oak posts, six inches square, and 15 feet long, 5 feet in the ground, projecting outward at a considerable angle, and firmly clamped together with iron.

"Mr. Remington's own language shall be employed in describing the principle on which the bridge is built. 'The great principle sought to be proved in this bridge (says Mr. R.) is that a beam of timber, of whatever size, shape, or length, lying horizontally and resting at each extremity on abutments, is as strong, and will require as much weight on the top of it to break it as it would take to break the same piece when pulled longitudinally in the direction of the fibre.' We apprehend that Mr. Remington's meaning would be better understood if he had said that the principle consists in the longitudinal power of timber being applied in a curvilinear form, by which every portion of the material is brought at once into play, and supports an equal share of the strain. Instead of springing from the

abutments as an arched, or resting upon them as a horizontal bridge, the stringers may be said to hang or be suspended from the piers, thus bringing the principle of the longitudinal bearing into action.

"We understand that many practical men to whom the principle was explained doubted in the first instance its applicability to a bridge of this size, but they are now willing to admit its complete success. That success, indeed, is demonstrated. The bridge is now in use. We have seen several carriages pass over it, and have ourselves driven across it. There is a vibratory motion when anything passes along the bridge, but there is scarcely any perceptible deflection; and we cannot but express our own conviction of the complete triumph of this novel and most extraordinary system of bridge building.

"The stringers curve gracefully upwards from each abutment, and then gradually bend in a curvilinear direction downwards to the centre of the bridge; the lowest point being twenty-four inches below the level of the abutments. The curves near to the abutments are designed more for beauty than for strength; but we understand they are indispensable in faulty foundations, which is the case in the present instance. There is a hand-rail on each side of the bridge, attached to the floor by trellis work; and as the hand-rail is of considerable strength, and is fixed to the abutments in the same mode as the stringers, it adds materially to the security and solidity of the bridge.

"The main advantage of this description of bridge is its *cheapness*. The cost of the structure which we are describing is only about £200; whereas, a bridge to accomplish the same purpose, built on any other plan, would have required an expenditure of many thousand pounds. Another advantage is, that such a bridge can be erected in situations where any other wooden bridge would be impracticable. A third advantage is, that the span may, as we are informed, be extended ten times as far as any wooden bridge ever yet constructed; and it may be added, that the inventor is of opinion that such bridges will be more durable than those of any other make.

"Although many foot bridges have been erected on this principle in America, and one in the Surrey Zoological Gardens, yet this is the first instance, we are informed, of a bridge of this construction being built for carriages. Earl Talbot having satisfied himself of the feasibility of the plan, instructed Mr. Remington to build the bridge; thus affording another proof of that enterprize and zeal for improvement, of which his lordship's estates afford so many conspicuous and successful examples. His lordship and family have frequently used the bridge, and are much gratified with the success which has attended the experiment. Lord Hatherton has likewise inspected it twice, and has, with a heavily laden carriage, passed over it. On Thursday, a cart with a load weighing two tons passed over it without occasioning a deflection, we are authentically informed, of the eighth of an inch.

"When we state, in conclusion, that such has been the expedition used in the erection of the bridge, that six weeks ago the timber of which it is constructed was growing, we think we have proved that 'Novelty in Bridge Building' was not an inappropriate title to the present article."

Another triumph of the young inventor, another wave to the tide now at flood, at last, was his success in draining a swamp belonging to Earl Talbot by several ingenious contrivances, described (not very clearly) in the following article, also from an English paper:—

THE DRAINAGE OF TIXALL MEADOWS. "Many of our readers are aware that amongst the great improvements which have been effected by Lord Hatherton on his estate at Teddesley, in this county, not the least is in the important branch of draining, which has been so admirably managed that the water drawn from the higher portions of the estate is used to irrigate the lower lands, and is also made doubly serviceable by being employed to turn a water-wheel, the power thus gained being employed in grinding, threshing, &c. The enemy is by these means converted into a friend. A somewhat similar, though perhaps a more singular

and ingenious experiment has just been tried on the meadows at Tixall, near this town, on the estate of Earl Talbot. These meadows are about 70 acres in extent, and are in the occupation of Mr. Warner and Mr. Scott. They lie so low, and are so level, that their surface has been covered with water of late years for almost nine months out of the twelve. The evil has lately been increasing to such a degree that this great extent of land was rapidly becoming little better than a gigantic bed of rushes and a useless swamp. Engineers of celebrity had been consulted on the subject, but the plans they proposed for draining these meadows were so expensive and so doubtful as to their probable issue, that all idea of adopting them had been abandoned. Some months ago, Mr. Remington, of whose clever inventions we have had occasion repeatedly to speak, inspected the *locus in quo*, as the lawyers call it, and said he would undertake to drain it. The work was commenced about five months since; and a shallow ditch on the north side of the meadows has been converted, by means of an embankment, into a small canal, about a mile in length, and a vast quantity of surface-water is by its means diverted from the meadows, and being carried to a point where the principal drain running down the centre of the land terminates, it is used for the purpose of working a most ingenious engine of Mr. Remington's invention, for pumping the water out of the drain. The engine consists of a circular pan, constructed of sheet iron, four feet four inches in diameter, and ten inches deep. At the bottom of the pan is a throttle-valve, so formed as to close when the water rushes into it; but when the weight of water lowers the pan to a certain point, the valve opens to allow the water to escape. A rod from the centre of the pan is connected by means of pulleys, and a chain, with a pump working in the adjoining drain; and the chain beam is so regulated as to form a balance between the pan and the pump. A small bolt at the end of the canal, which we have described, is raised by means of an iron arm attached to the rod of the pan, every time the pan ascends, and the bolt is further gradually elevated by means of two weights attached to a lever, by which simple contrivance, when the bolt is lifted to a short distance, the weight carries it to the full height, and ensures a discharge of water sufficient to lower the pan. There are several minute contrivances connected with this simple but effective machinery, which must be seen to be properly understood and appreciated; such, for instance, as the one which opens the valve of the pan on its descent. In order to meet the variable height of the water below, that instrument is made to float. Indeed, one of the great objects accomplished by this method of applying water power is, that no ordinary amount of back water can interrupt the working of the engine. The pump is also of as simple and ingenious construction as the other part of the apparatus. The main cylinder is thirty-two inches in diameter, and the plunger twenty-seven; and, notwithstanding the fact that the plunger does not come in contact, by packing or otherwise, with the sides of the cylinder, the effect of the customary piston of a pump is produced without loss of water. According to Mr. Remington's calculation, twenty-six gallons of water are raised and discharged by the pump at every stroke. Every one who inspects this beautiful contrivance, must be struck with its admirable adaptation to the purpose intended. It has been at work three days. One of its strongest recommendations is, that it is self-acting, and requires no attention. By means of what we have called the canal, a large quantity of water has been removed from the meadows, which are firm and dry compared with their state ten days ago; and the utmost confidence is expressed by both Mr. Warner and Mr. Scott that, by this clever and comparatively inexpensive contrivance, a complete drainage will be effected."

ART. IV.—COMMERCIAL CITIES AND TOWNS OF THE UNITED STATES.

NUMBER XIII.

NEW ORLEANS: ITS TRADE AND COMMERCE.

NEW ORLEANS, the principal port of entry and the capital of Louisiana, is justly entitled to a high rank among our enumeration of the "Commercial Cities and Towns of the United States." It is often familiarly called the Crescent city, from its form; for though the streets are straight, those which follow the river have two turns at large angles, giving it something of this form. The river opposite to the city is half a mile wide, and from 100 to 150 feet deep, and preserves the same width to near its entrance into the Gulf of Mexico. It is situated 92 miles from the mouth of the Mississippi, and is in latitude $29^{\circ} 57'$ North, longitude $90^{\circ} 8'$ West; 953 miles below the mouth of the Ohio, 1,149 below the mouth of the Missouri, 1,397 south-west of New York, and 1,612 south-west of Boston, &c.

It may be well to introduce in this place, before we proceed to exhibit the statistics of its trade and commerce, a brief sketch of the history of New Orleans, abridged from the most authentic data.

In 1718, Bienville, then governor of Louisiana, selected a spot for the chief settlement of the province, which had hitherto been at Biloxi, and fixed on the present site of New Orleans, and left 50 men to clear the ground, and erect the necessary buildings. In 1719, the Mississippi rose to an extraordinary height; and as the company were not able to erect dykes, the spot was overflowed, and it was for a time abandoned. In 1721, De Pauger completed a survey of the passes of the Mississippi. He found a bar at its mouth consisting of a deposit of mud, 300 feet wide, and twice that in length, having about 11 feet of water. In November, 1722, Delorme removed the principal deposite to New Orleans, pursuant to orders. The next year, Charlevoix reached New Orleans from Canada by the way of the river, and found at New Orleans 100 cabins without much order, a large wooden warehouse, two or three dwelling-houses, a miserable store-house, which had been used as a chapel, a shed being converted into a house of prayer, and a population not to exceed 200. A negro was at this period sold for \$126; rice at \$3 the barrel; and brandy at \$30 the quarter cask. A company of Germans, disappointed by the failure of the financier Law, descended the river to New Orleans, with a view to return to France, but were induced to remain on small allotments of land made to them at what is now called the German coast, and supplied the city with vegetables. Their descendants still cultivate the land on a larger scale. In September of this year a terrible hurricane leveled the church, hospital, and 20 houses, drove three vessels which were in the harbor ashore, destroyed the crops and gardens, and produced a scarcity of provisions, and several of the inhabitants thought of abandoning the colony. In 1727, the Jesuits and Ursuline nuns arrived, and were accommodated on a tract of land in the lowest part of the fauxbourg St. Mary. The nuns removed to a house erected for them in 1730. This property became in time very valuable, and was sold; and the nuns removed to a new convent in 1824, two miles below the city. In 1763, Clement XIII. expelled the Jesuits from the dominions of the kings of France, Spain, and Naples, and they were obliged to leave Louisiana, and

their property was seized and sold for about \$180,000. The same property, with its improvements, is now worth \$15,000,000. In 1764, British vessels began to visit the Mississippi. They would sail past the city, make fast to a tree opposite the present city of Lafayette, and trade with the citizens. The exports during the last year of its subjection to France was \$250,000, and the population of the city was 3,190. The commerce suffered by the restrictions of the Spanish. In 1785, the population of the city, exclusive of the settlements in the vicinity, was 4,980. A more liberal course of the Spanish government revived the trade of New Orleans, and French, British, and American vessels began to visit New Orleans. In 1788, a fire consumed 900 houses. In 1791, the first company of French comedians arrived from Cape Francois, having fled from the massacre at St. Domingo; other emigrants opened academies, the education of youth having been previously in the hands of priests and nuns. In 1792, Baron Carondelet arrived. He divided the city into four wards, and recommended lighting it, and employed watchmen. The revenue of the city did not amount to \$7,000, and the lighting it required a tax of \$1 12½ cents on every chimney. He erected new fortifications, and had the militia trained. In 1794, the first newspaper was published in Louisiana. In 1795, permission was granted by the king to the citizens of the United States to deposit their merchandise at New Orleans, during a period of ten years. In 1796, the canal Carondelet was completed. In March 21st, 1801, Louisiana was ceded by Spain to the French republic, and in April 30th, 1803, Bonaparte, as first consul, sold it to the United States for about \$15,000,000, and it was taken possession of on the 30th of November. The population of the city did not then exceed 8,056, and of the province but 49,473; 42,000 of whom were within the present bounds of Louisiana. The duties of the custom-house, the year preceding the cession, amounted to \$117,515, which would have been greater, but for the corruption of the officers. The Roman Catholic religion was the only one publicly allowed. The revenues of the city in 1802 were \$19,278. There entered the Mississippi this year 256 vessels, of which 16 were public armed vessels; of American, 48 ships, 63 brigs, 50 schooners, and 9 sloops; of Spanish, 14 ships, 17 brigs, 4 polacres, 64 schooners, and 1 sloop; of French, 1 brig. In 1804, New Orleans was made a port of entry and delivery, and the bayou St. John a port of delivery. A city charter was granted New Orleans in 1805. January 10th, 1812, the first steamboat arrived at the city from Pittsburgh, having descended in 259 hours. In August, a hurricane did great damage to the houses and shipping, which has not been an unfrequent occurrence.

Early in December, 1814, the British approached New Orleans with about 8,000 men by the way of lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain. Their passage into the lake was opposed by a squadron of gun boats, under Lieut. Jones. After a spirited conflict, in which the killed and wounded of the enemy exceeded the whole American force, he was compelled to surrender to superior numbers. December 21st, 4,000 militia arrived from Tennessee. On the 22d, the enemy, having previously landed, took a position near the main channel of the river, eight miles below the city. On the evening of the 23d, General Jackson made a furious attack upon their camp; they were thrown into disorder, but rallied, and General Jackson withdrew his troops, and fortified a strong position four miles below the city, supported by batteries on the west side of the river.

The fortifications were unsuccessfully assailed on the 28th of December and the 1st of January. In the meantime both armies received reinforcements ; and on the 8th of January the British prepared to storm the works. In the night a regiment was transported across the river to storm the works on the western bank. Early in the morning the main body of the British, consisting of 7 or 8,000 men, marched from their camp to assault the American works. Many were killed by grape-shot as they approached. When they came within musket shot, a stream of fire burst forth from the American lines. General Jackson had placed his troops in two lines, where those in the rear loaded for those in front, which caused the fire to be incessant, which, from Kentucky and Tennessee marksmen, must have been deadly. While leading to the walls the regiment which bore the ladders, General Pakenham, the chief in command, was killed ; General Gibbs, the second in command, was mortally wounded ; and General Keene severely. Without officers to direct them, the troops halted, fell back, and soon fled in disorder to the camp. In a little more than an hour 2,000 of the British lay prostrate on the field, while only seven Americans were killed and six wounded ; a disproportion unparelled in the history of warfare. The men on the west side of the river fled before an inferior force, but the events on the east side caused the British to cross the river and retire to their entrenchments. General Lambert, upon whom the command devolved, despairing of success, retired with his troops on board the fleet ; and General Jackson, being resolved to hazard nothing, suffered him to retreat unmolested. Immediately after the event, news arrived of peace having been concluded between the United States and Great Britain, which had in fact taken place a short time before the battle, though the news of it did not arrive till after.

In May, 1816, the levee, nine miles above New Orleans, broke through and inundated the back part of the city from three to five feet deep, and destroyed several plantations. The crevasse was finally closed, principally by the exertions of Governor Clairborne, by sinking a vessel in the breach.

The city proper is bounded by Canal, Rampart, and Esplanade-streets, and on the river by the levee, on which it extended about thirteen hundred yards, and back about seven hundred, in the form of a parallelogram.

This portion is traversed by twenty-two streets, forming eighty-four principal and fourteen minor squares. The whole extent of the city, including the incorporated fauxbourgs and Lafayette, is not less than five miles on a line with the river, and running on an average of half a mile in width.

The houses are chiefly constructed with bricks, except a few ancient and dilapidated dwellings in the heart of the city, and some new ones in the outskirts. Wooden buildings are not permitted to be built, under present regulations, within what are denominated the fire limits. The modern structures, particularly in the second municipality, are generally three and four stories high, and are embellished with handsome and substantial granite or marble fronts. The public buildings are numerous, and many of them will vie with any of the kind in our sister cities. A particular description of these will be found in the ensuing pages.

The view of New Orleans from the river, in ascending or descending, is beautiful and imposing—seen from the dome of the St. Charles Ex-

change, it presents a panorama at once magnificent and surprising. In taking a lounge through the lower part of the city, the stranger finds a difficulty in believing himself to be in an American city. The older buildings are of ancient and foreign construction, and the manners, customs and language are various—the population being composed, in nearly equal proportions, of American, French, Creoles, and Spaniards, together with a large portion of Germans, and a good sprinkling from almost every other nation upon the globe.

The Water-works constantly supply the people with water forced from the Mississippi, by the agency of steam, into a reservoir, whence by pipes it is sent all over the city. This water is wholesome and palatable.

Gas was introduced into New Orleans, through the enterprize of James H. Caldwell, Esq., in 1834; he having lighted his theatre with it several years previous. The dense part of the city is now lighted by it; and the hotels, stores, shops, and many dwelling-houses within reach, have availed themselves of the advantages it offers.

In the summer of 1844, a fire destroyed about seven blocks of buildings between Common and Canal-streets, near the Charity Hospital. The ground has since been occupied with much better buildings, and presents a very improved appearance.

The population of New Orleans, after it was ceded to the United States, increased very rapidly. At the time of the transfer, there were not eight thousand inhabitants.

	Blacks.	Whites.	Total.		Blacks.	Whites.	Total.
In 1810.....	8,001	16,551	24,552	In 1825.....	45,336
1815.....	32,947	1830.....	21,280	28,530	49,826
1820.....	19,737	21,614	41,350	1840.....	102,191

And, at the present period, there are probably one hundred and thirty thousand. During 1844, there were more buildings erected than any previous year—notwithstanding which, tenements are in great demand, and rents continue high. It will not be a matter of surprise, if the number of inhabitants at the next census, 1850, should be over 160,000.

During the business season, which continues from the first of November to July, the levee, for an extent of five miles, is crowded with vessels of all sizes, but more especially ships, from every part of the world—with hundreds of immense floating castles and palaces, called steamboats, and barges and flat boats innumerable. No place can present a more busy, bustling scene. The loading and unloading of vessels and steamboats—the transportation, by some three thousand drays, of cotton, sugar, tobacco, and the various and extensive produce of the great West, strikes the stranger with wonder and admiration. The levee and piers that range along the whole length of the city, extending back on an average of some two hundred feet, are continually covered with moving merchandise. This was once a pleasant promenade, where the citizen enjoyed his delightful morning and evening walk; but now there is scarcely room, amid hogs-heads, bales, and boxes, for the business man to crowd along, without a sharp look out for his personal safety.

The position of New Orleans, as a vast commercial emporium, is unrivalled, as will be seen by a single glance at the map of the United States. As the depot of the West, and the half-way house of foreign trade, it is almost impossible to anticipate its future magnitude.

Take a view, for instance, of the immense regions known under the

name of the Mississippi valley. Its boundaries on the west are the Rocky Mountains and Mexico; on the south, the Gulf of Mexico; on the east, the Alleghany Mountains; and on the north, the lakes and the British possessions. It contains nearly as many square miles, and more tillable ground, than all continental Europe, and, if peopled as densely as England, would sustain a population of five hundred millions—more than half of the present inhabitants of the earth. Its surface is generally cultivable, and its soil rich, with a climate varying to suit all products, for home consumption or a foreign market. The Mississippi is navigable twenty-one hundred miles—passing a small portage, three thousand may be achieved. It embraces the productions of many climates, and a mining country abounding in coal, lead, iron and copper ore, all found in veins of wonderful richness. The Missouri stretches thirty-nine hundred miles to the Great Falls, among the Flat Foot Indians, and five thousand from New Orleans. The Yellow Stone, navigable for eleven hundred miles, the Platte for sixteen hundred, and the Kansas for twelve hundred, are only tributaries to the latter river. The Ohio is two thousand miles to Pittsburgh, receiving into her bosom from numerous streams the products of New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Kentucky, Western Virginia, Tennessee, Indiana and Illinois. The Arkansas, Big Black, Yazoo, Red River, and many others, all pouring their wealth into the main artery, the Mississippi, upon whose mighty current it floats down to the grand reservoir, New Orleans.

The Mississippi valley contained over eight millions of inhabitants in 1840, having gained eighty per cent during the last ten years. The present number cannot be less than ten millions.

The United States Branch Mint is situated on what was once called Jackson Square, being nearly the former site of Fort St. Charles. It is an edifice of the Ionic order, of brick plastered to imitate granite, having a centre building projecting, with two wings; is strongly built, with very thick walls, and well finished. Our limits will not permit us to go into a detailed description of its interior arrangements; which, however, may be generally spoken of as such as not to discredit the distinguished engineer who planned them. The total length of the edifice is 282 feet, and the depth about 108—the wings being 29 by 81, and the whole three stories in height. It was begun in September, 1835; and the building was perfectly completed at a cost of \$182,000. The machinery is elegant and highly finished, and when in operation, proves an interesting sight to visitors; which, from the gentlemanly urbanity of the officers of the establishment, may be easily enjoyed. The square is surrounded by a neat iron railing on a granite basement.

Poydras-street Market is designed for the accommodation of the inhabitants in the rear portion of the second municipality. It covers a space of ground in Poydras-street forty-two feet wide by four hundred and two long—extending from near Baronne to Circus-street. It was built in 1837, and cost \$40,000.

The Vegetable Market. The ground plan of this building is irregular, having been constructed at different periods. It approaches the Roman Doric order—is supported by brick columns plastered, and covered with a wooden frame roof tiled. It fronts on Old Levee, St. Philip and Ursuline-streets, and the river. The design was by J. Pilié, who superintended the work. It was completed in 1830, at an expense of \$25,800.

The Meat Market, built in the rusticated Doric order, was completed in 1813, after the designs of J. Piernas, city surveyor. The building is of brick plastered, with a wooden frame roof, covered with slate. It is situated on the Levee, and extends from St. Ann to Main-streets; and, from its favorable location, and neat simplicity of architecture, is a striking object to those who approach the city by water. It cost about \$30,000.

St. Mary's Market. This building fronts on Tchoupitoulas-street, and runs to New Levee, a distance of 486 feet by a width of 42 feet. It was completed in 1836, in the rusticated Doric order, at a cost of about \$48,000. In the vicinity, on the first named street, is a vegetable market—a very neat edifice.

MANUFACTURES in New Orleans have, until recently, been but little known. There are now, however, several actively employed and well patronized branches of the manufacturing business; which, if not calculated to compete with those in other markets, answer a very good purpose for its own.

The Iron Foundry of Messrs. Leeds & Co. produces every variety of machinery that steamboats and manufactories require for extensive operations. It has been established many years, at the corner of Foucher and Delord streets, occupies nearly a whole square, and is on as extensive a scale as any in the country. The business-like and prompt system practiced by the conductors, is known to all who require their aid upon the whole line of the Mississippi and its tributaries.

Steam Planing Mill upon Carondelet Walk, has been in successful operation over four years. Lumber is landed upon Carondelet Canal, which passes in front of the building.

Steam Saw Mills. Of these there are two; one located in the third municipality, the other five miles below the city, and both upon the banks of the river. They can furnish lumber of almost any description in abundance.

Rope Walks. There are several of these in different parts of the city, where cordage may be manufactured to any extent demanded by the business of the place. Besides these, there are several flour mills, a paper mill, sugar refinery, cotton factories, &c., all in successful operation.

THE COTTON PRESSES. This is the place, of all others, for these extensive buildings, which generally occupy a square, and sometimes more. They are numerous and extensive establishments. A brief description of two of the most prominent will serve for the whole, as they very much resemble each other in their construction.

The Levee Cotton Press, erected by a company under that name, was completed in 1832, at a cost of \$500,000. No architectural effect was aimed at in the façade, which is, however, neat and plain. This establishment can press about 200,000 bales per annum.

The Orleans Cotton Press. This vast establishment fronts on the Mississippi, running back on Roffignac and New Levee-streets. The ground occupied is 632 by 308 feet, and is nearly covered by the buildings. The whole was built according to designs made by Charles F. Zimpel, begun in 1833, and completed in 1835, at a cost, including the site, of \$753,558. The front on the river, although having no pretensions to architectural effect, is still, from its location and extent, quite impressive. This press can store 25,000 bales of cotton, and compresses, on an average, 150,000 bales per annum; but its capacity is much greater.

BANKS.—*Louisiana State Bank.* This building was erected in 1822, at a cost, including the ground, of \$55,000. The plan was from Latrobe, and Benjamin Fox the architect. It stands on the corner of Royal and Bienville-streets, and presents rather a plain but neat external appearance. It is most substantially built; the lower story is heavily arched, and the banking apartments are completely fire-proof. Capital, \$2,000,000.

The Mechanics' and Traders' Bank is situated on Canal-street, occupying only an ordinary house, compared to some others, and requires no particular description. Capital, \$2,000,000.

The City Bank is a building of the Ionic order, situated in Camp, near Canal-street, and designed by W. L. Atkinson, architect. Its construction was commenced in 1837, and finished in 1838, under the superintendence of J. Gallier, at a cost of about \$50,000. The banking room is admired for its elegant simplicity. Capital, \$2,000,000.

The Gas Bank. This building, in St. Charles-street, between Canal and Common-streets, is so closely squeezed in among others, that it has little opportunity to show off the beauty it possesses. It was erected in 1839, under the superintendence of Sidel & Stewart, at an expense of about \$25,000, ground \$25,000, making \$50,000, and is every way well calculated for a banking house. The original capital was \$4,000,000, but it was reduced to \$180,000, and by request of the stockholders, the banking privileges have been withdrawn by an act of the Legislature of 1845.

The Canal Bank has its entrance in the centre of the front on Magazine-street, of a substantial granite building which stands on that and the corner of Gravier-street. That portion of the edifice is very tastefully arranged after the designs of Dakin, the architect. It was erected in 1845. The residue of the structure is used for stores. Capital, \$4,000,000.

The Bank of Louisiana is a fine Ionic building at the south-west corner of Royal and Conti-streets, surrounded by a handsome court. The whole edifice is well arranged; the banking room in particular is admired for its good architectural effect, being sixty feet square, and of a proportionate height, with a fine gallery above. It was commenced by Bickle, Hamlet, & Fox, builders, in 1826, and finished the following year, at a cost of \$80,000. Capital, \$4,000,000.

Banks' Arcade occupies the front of a square on Magazine-street, between Gravier and Natchez-streets, having a main entrance from each of those last named, to the Arcade, which divides the building through the whole length—being three stories high, and covered with glass, to exclude rain and admit the light. In the lower and second stories are offices of almost all descriptions; and the third is appropriated mostly to sleeping-rooms.

The bar-room, opening on Magazine-street, is 100 by 60 feet, and 35 in height. It is handsomely embellished, has a gallery surrounding the upper story, and is a popular place for public meetings. It will accommodate 5,000 people on such occasions. This building stands in the centre of business, and, consequently, is a place of great resort for merchants and others. Erected by Thomas Banks in 1833, Charles Zimble, architect.

City Exchange. This magnificent edifice, which is one of the greatest ornaments of the city, fronts on three streets—about 300 feet on St Louis,

and 120 each on Royal and Chartres-street—the building being intended by the projectors to combine the convenience of a city exchange, hotel, bank, large ball rooms, and private stores.

The principal façade, on St. Louis-street, may be generally described as being composed of the Tuscan and Doric orders. The main entrance is formed by six columns of the composite Doric order. Through this portico, access is had to the vestibule of the Exchange, a handsome, though simple hall, 127 by 40 feet. This room is appropriated to general business, and constantly open during waking hours. You pass through this into one of the most beautiful rotundas in America, which is devoted exclusively to business, and is open from noon to three o'clock P. M. This fine room is surrounded by arcades and galleries, always open to the public, (Sundays excepted,) and its general appearance cannot fail to impress upon the mind a most favorable idea of its grandeur and beauty. The dome is most tastefully laid off in compartments, within which the magic pencils of Canova and Pinoli have portrayed allegorical scenes and the busts of eminent Americans, in rich fresco; a style of painting comparatively new in the United States. The floors of the gallery which engird the rotunda, and the winding stairs leading to them, are of iron.

By a side entrance on St. Louis-street, access is obtained to the second story; the front of which, on this street, is occupied by a suit of ball-rooms and their dependencies. The great ball-room is magnificent in its size and decorations. The building also has a capacious entrance on Royal-street, as a hotel that can accommodate 200 persons. At the corner of Chartres-street are the public baths. In the spring of 1840 this building was nearly burnt down, but, in less than two years, it was completely restored to its original splendor.

The Commercial Exchange. This edifice is upon the south-west corner of St. Charles and Perdido-streets, fronting 103 feet upon the former, and running 100 upon the latter. The main part of the building is constructed of brick and stuccoed; the upper portion is purely Corinthian, the lower entirely Tuscan. The principal entrance, on St. Charles-street, is by a portico supported by two Ionic pillars, and the same number of pilastres, composed of granite. The vestibule is eleven feet deep, which admits visitors by three separate doors into the exchange saloon, the most spacious apartment of the kind in the United States; it being 70 by 100 feet, and 27 to the ceiling, which is supported by twelve well arranged and substantial pillars. At the rear of this public room are two others, intended for the accommodation of auctioneers, leaving only sufficient space on the left for the necessary offices and access to the second floor.

The Merchants' Exchange, fronting on Royal-street and Exchange Place, was erected by a joint stock company in 1835-6, from the designs and under the superintendence of Mr. Dakin, architect. Both fronts are of marble, in a plain and bold style. The cost of the erection was \$100,000.

The Merchants' Reading Room—entrance from Royal-street and Exchange Place. This reading room occupied a spacious apartment in the second story of the Merchants' Exchange, and is under the patronage and control of the company interested in that building. It is generally supplied with most of the newspapers of the country, and has received a patronage quite equal to the extent of its accommodations.

For several of the preceding paragraphs, we are indebted to a little

volume published in 1845 by B. H. Norman, Esq., entitled "Norman's New Orleans and Environs," a work embracing in a small compass a brief historical sketch of the territory and State of Louisiana and the city of New Orleans, with other matters of general as well as local interest.

The following table, made up with great care by the editors of the New Orleans Price Current, will give a pretty accurate idea of the extent of the internal trade of that city. It shows the quantity and value of the principal productions of the interior received at New Orleans during the year ending on the 31st of August, 1848, with their estimated average and total value.

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF PRODUCE RECEIVED AT NEW ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR IN 1847-8.

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value.
Apples.....bbls.	39,518	\$3 00	\$118,554
Bacon, assorted.....hhds. and casks	28,909	32 00	925,088
Bacon, assorted.....boxes	16,210	20 00	324,200
Bacon hams.....hhds. and tcs.	18,539	45 00	834,255
Bacon in bulk.....lbs.	381,140	4	15,245
Bagging.....pieces	77,682	13 00	1,009,866
Bale rope.....coils	74,325	10 00	743,250
Beans.....bbls.	20,485	2 50	51,212
Butter.....kegs and fir.	45,213	5 00	226,065
Butter.....bbls.	1,156	20 00	23,120
Beeswax.....	698	40 00	27,920
Beef.....	35,598	8 00	284,784
Beef.....tcs.	14,662	14 00	205,268
Beef, dried.....lbs.	56,100	6	3,366
Buffalo robes.....packs	14	65 00	910
Cotton.....bales	1,213,805	29 00	35,200,345
Corn meal.....bbls.	47,543	2 00	95,086
Corn in ear.....	509,583	60	305,749
Corn, shelled.....sacks	1,083,465	1 10	1,192,009
Cheese.....boxes	52,362	3 00	157,086
Candles.....	16,750	4 00	67,000
Cider.....bbls.	344	3 00	1,032
Coal, western.....	320,000	60	192,000
Dried apples and peaches.....	1,585	2 50	3,962
Feathers.....bags	2,594	25 00	64,800
Flaxseed.....tcs.	4,393	9 00	39,537
Flour.....bbls.	706,958	5 00	3,534,790
Furs.....hhds. bund. and boxes	410	650,000
Hemp.....bales	21,584	19 00	410,096
Hides.....	47,662	1 25	59,575
Hay.....bales	61,934	2 75	170,317
Iron, pig.....tons	701	30 00	21,030
Lard.....hhds.	459	60 00	27,540
Lard.....bbls. and tcs.	216,031	17 00	3,672,527
Lard.....kegs	303,661	3 00	910,983
Leather.....bundles	6,316	20 00	126,320
Lime, western.....bbls.	14,920	1 00	14,920
Lead.....pigs	606,966	2 80	1,699,504
Lead, bar.....kegs and boxes	787	16 00	12,292
Molasses (estimated crop).....galls.	12,000,000	16	1,920,000
Oats.....bbls. and sacks	467,219	75	350,415
Onions.....bbls.	7,960	2 00	15,920
Oil, Linseed.....	2,327	20 00	46,540
Oil, Castor.....	1,199	25 00	29,975
Oil, Lard.....	5,401	20 00	108,020
Peach brandy.....	4	15 00	60
Potatoes.....	151,861	2 00	303,722
Pork.....	356,480	8 50	3,030,080
Pork.....hhds.	14,201	35 00	794,035

QUANTITY AND VALUE OF PRODUCE RECEIVED AT NEW ORLEANS—CONTINUED.

Articles.	Amount.	Average.	Value.
Pork, in bulk.....lbs.	13,564,430	3	\$406,932
Porter and ale.....bbls.	3,492	7 00	24,444
Packing yarn.....reels	3,333	7 00	23,331
Skins, Deer.....packs	1,361	20 00	27,220
Skins, Bear.....	22	15 00	330
Shot.....kegs	5,258	18 00	94,644
Soap.....boxes	5,580	2 50	13,950
Staves.....M.	2,000	40 00	80,000
Sugar (estimated crop).....hhd.	240,000	40 00	9,600,000
Spanish moss.....bales	3,406	4 00	13,624
Tallow.....bbls.	4,357	18 00	78,426
Tobacco, leaf.....hhd.	47,882	55 00	2,633,510
Tobacco, strips.....	8,000	90 00	720,000
Tobacco, chewing.....kegs and boxes	6,390	12 00	76,680
Tobacco.....bales	118	3 00	354
Twine.....bundles and boxes	2,132	11 00	23,450
Vinegar.....bbls.	1,199	4 00	4,796
Whiskey.....bbls.	135,333	7 00	947,331
Window glass.....boxes	4,260	4 00	17,040
Wheat.....bbls. and sacks	149,181	1 80	269,659
Other various articles, estimated at.....			5,000,000
Total value.....			\$79,779,151

It will be seen that the above table gives the quantities and value of the different articles of produce received at New Orleans from the interior for the year 1847-8. In the following table we give the quantities, omitting that year, for the six preceding years:—

IMPORTS INTO NEW ORLEANS, FROM THE INTERIOR, FOR SIX YEARS, FROM THE 1ST SEPTEMBER TO THE 31ST AUGUST, IN EACH YEAR.

Articles.	1846-7.	1845-6.	1844-5.	1843-4.	1842-3.	1841-2.
Apples.....bbls.	39,612	26,775	26,515	43,969	67,803	26,443
Bacon, ass'd. casks, &c.	36,932	25,213	12,892	19,563	16,568	13,505
Bacon hams.....hhd.	14,518	12,092	8,358	19,070	13,588	9,220
Bacon in bulk.....lbs.	425,163	492,700	350,000	1,203,821	1,453,798	1,288,109
Bagging.....pieces	60,982	96,601	111,324	100,216	89,721	60,307
Bale rope.....coils	56,201	56,678	67,600	83,684	80,932	63,307
Beans.....bbls.	24,536	16,585	7,006	7,619	8,878	10,993
Butter.....kegs	51,384	44,172	30,319	18,831	18,530	11,791
Butter.....bbls.	872	1,494	396	500	894	284
Beeswax.....	1,109	1,200	1,464	1,911	985	343
Beeswax.....lbs.	3,100	4,920		510	2,677	3,300
Beef.....bbls. and tes.	53,968	62,231	32,674	49,363	17,549	17,455
Beef, dried.....lbs.	49,000	98,200	58,200	55,610	51,400	60,812
Buffalo robes.....packs	55	1,031	1,915	5,445	5,135	3,122
Cotton—						
Lou. and Miss. bales	453,842	765,315	688,244	627,769	824,045	583,328
Lake.....	4,356	14,276	19,533	13,234	14,280	8,967
N. Ala. and Tenn...	211,502	222,677	198,246	169,334	191,410	118,629
Arkansas.....	35,279	34,876	23,103	21,835	30,511	16,734
Mobile.....	16,379	6,356	12,123	47,596	10,687	4,565
Florida.....	16,966	5,884	12,830	12,916	3,381	2,831
Texas.....	2,345	4,249	25,159	18,170	15,328	5,101
Corn meal.....bbls.	88,159	3,905	7,917	3,769	5,415	6,023
Corn in ears.....	619,756	358,573	139,686	165,354	255,058	240,675
Corn, shelled.....sacks	2,386,510	1,166,120	390,964	360,052	427,552	338,709
Cheese.....boxes	57,429	57,392	39,091	12,583	3,502	2,710
Candles.....	8,496	10,461	5,170	3,913	1,201	3,593
Cider.....bbls.	477	135	385	1,419	1,026	1,130

IMPORTS INTO NEW ORLEANS FROM THE INTERIOR—CONTINUED.

Articles.	1846-7.	1845-6.	1844-5.	1843-4.	1842-3.	1841-2.
Coal, western.....bbls.	356,500	262,800	281,000	227,788	255,568	140,582
Dried peaches.....	3,009	137	474	1,112	718	863
Dried apples.....	5,761	930	1,758	889	958	1,115
Flaxseed.....acs.	962	823	2,181	4,273	13,480	863
Flour.....bbls.	1,617,675	837,985	533,312	502,507	521,175	439,688
Furs.....boxes	75	28	118	43	37	45
Furs.....bundles	253	609	581	496	326	1,792
Feathers.....bags	3,498	4,607	5,403	4,568	1,484	1,737
Hemp.....bales	60,238	30,980	46,274	38,062	14,873	1,211
Hides.....	98,342	112,913	117,863	76,490	45,957	26,169
Horns.....	9,600	700	8,300	3,870	1,700	700
Hay.....bales	95,231	71,270	37,296	35,132	28,059	20,166
Iron, pig.....tons	1,151	1,083	207	100	211	322
Lard.....hhds.	143	45	167	212	1,433	74
Lard.....bbls.	117,077	107,639	60,078	119,717	104,540	18,207
Lard.....kegs	275,076	334,969	245,414	373,341	307,871	366,694
Lime, western.....bbls.	5,994	8,387	6,233	3,767	1,159	830
Lead.....pigs	650,129	785,394	732,125	639,269	571,949	472,556
Lead, bar.....kegs	1,291	1,431	788	851	701	1,084
Lead, white.....	11,686	7,853	888	30	50	592
Molasses.....bbls.	91,710	132,363	105,086	64,852	66,183	69,104
Oats.....bbls. and sacks	588,337	269,386	144,262	130,432	120,430	63,281
Onions.....bbls.	7,185	6,979	7,499	6,443	4,614	3,338
Oil, Linseed.....	3,637	1,135	1,356	2,260	1,356	305
Oil, Castor.....	1,439	2,379	3,385	2,757	4,976	3,666
Oil, Lard.....	2,573	2,606	2,413	2,647	1,818
Peach brandy.....bbls.	72	54	46	49	72	267
Pickles...kegs and bbls.	648	1,316	218	1,154	445	140
Potatoes.....bbls.	142,888	107,058	53,779	56,587	48,060	26,201
Pork.....bbls.	302,170	369,601	216,960	412,928	204,643	244,442
Pork.....hhds.	9,452	9,988	6,741	8,800	2,371	946
Pork, in bulk.....lbs.	8,450,700	9,740,752	4,079,600	7,792,000	6,814,750	4,051,800
Porter and ale.....bbls.	1,363	231	86	604	1,050	514
Packing yarn.....reels	2,193	1,180	1,104	1,164	1,465	2,099
Skins, deer.....packs	1,784	4,364	2,729	1,939	1,496	3,219
Shot.....kegs	3,992	3,103	4,105	4,714	1,588	3,416
Sugar.....hhds.	82,011	93,109	93,288	51,816	65,036	50,920
Soap.....boxes	4,361	3,633	6,076	7,399	2,627	1,932
Shingles.....	147,000	13,000	144,000	361,561	147,000	114,000
Staves.....	2,000,000	5,679,000	2,500,000	1,362,678	1,165,400	425,000
Tallow.....bbls.	6,658	8,255	7,828	7,323	6,995	5,071
Tobacco, leaf.....hhds.	55,588	72,896	71,493	82,435	92,509	67,555
Tobacco, chew'g.....kegs	3,930	3,040	5,309	7,695	4,902	3,618
Tobacco.....bales	1,001	1,105	3,799	4,771	3,008	3,298
Twine.....bundles	1,285	734	1,951	2,099	1,903	1,175
Whiskey.....bbls.	126,553	117,104	97,651	86,947	83,597	63,345
Window glass....boxes	3,805	2,831	3,071	2,066	2,342	2,761
Wheat...bbls. and sacks	633,649	403,786	64,759	86,014	118,248	134,886

A passage from the annual remarks of the editors of the Price Current and Merchants' Transcript will furnish the best illustration we can give of the foregoing table:—

"Our records show an immense falling off in the operations in the leading articles under this head during the past year, as compared with the season ending the 1st September last. It will of course be remembered by all that a famine in Europe had produced an extraordinary demand for breadstuffs, and the consequent elevation in prices brought forth from our well-filled granaries not only the abundant product of the then current year, but also the hoarded surplus of previous seasons. It was thus that our receipts here, as well as at the other shipping ports of the country, suddenly rose to double those of the year immediately preceding,

and to an amount many fold greater than those of any previous year. The very thorough manner in which the West gave up her supplies in 1846-7, and the comparatively limited foreign demand during the past season, have carried back our receipts of breadstuffs to *less than one-half* what they were last year. Thus our arrivals of flour are 706,958 barrels, against 1,617,675 barrels last year; of Indian corn equal to 3,600,000 bushels, against 7,065,000 bushels last year; of wheat equal to 300,000 bushels, against 1,670,000 last year; of corn meal 47,543 barrels, against 88,159 barrels last year. The exports show a corresponding reduction. The total exports of flour amount to 472,519 barrels, against 1,319,506 barrels last year. Of this quantity 15,416 barrels have been sent to Great Britain and Ireland, 88,676 to the West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of Indian corn the total exports are equal to 3,059,000 bushels, against 6,303,000 bushels last year. Of this quantity 1,360,000 bushels have been shipped to Great Britain and Ireland, 173,000 to the West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of wheat there have been exported to foreign ports barely 35,000 bushels, nearly all of which was to Great Britain; the bulk of the receipts being shipped to the North, and a portion consumed in our city mills."

The leading exports of New Orleans are cotton, tobacco, sugar, molasses, flour, pork, bacon, lard, &c. The following tables show the extent of the trade in these and other articles of export from that port for a series of years:—

EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR SIX YEARS.

Whither exported.	1847-8.	1846-7.	1845-6.	1844-5.	1843-4.	1842-3.
	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>
Liverpool.....	619,817	367,810	521,953	529,675	488,817	624,681
London.....		48	159	2,025	518	61
Glasgow and Greenock	27,996	10,598	17,893	36,213	21,265	35,831
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.	6,270	6,102	8,134	17,975	14,893	15,939
Cork, Belfast, &c.....		810	14,181		2,182	2,926
Havre.....	123,856	90,103	146,153	112,995	107,973	159,658
Bordeaux.....	3,178	330	2,315	2,314	1,418	2,861
Marseilles.....	8,659	3,323	6,806	7,857	7,462	9,982
Nantz, Cette, & Rouen	5,275	1,963	4,254	1,854	3,127	8,374
Amsterdam.....	1,831		2,019	1,253	1,360	2,593
Rotterdam and Ghent.	304	595	53	2,355	512	2,173
Bremen.....	8,716	4,369	3,419	9,211	2,770	13,303
Antwerp, &c.....	14,170	2,912	7,838	7,196	8,499	17,693
Hamburgh.....	7,091	7,466	3,585	9,123	3,156	13,664
Gottenburgh.....	4,887	4,376	3,877	1,630	402	114
Spain and Gibraltar....	32,565	17,705	1,679	821		401
Havana, Mexico, &c...	25,468	9,376	29,800	62,083	33,151	21,177
Genoa, Trieste, &c....	45,228	30,542	52,607	27,201	19,704	17,662
China.....	1,490			2,353		4,303
Other foreign ports....	13,057	6,579	8,050	2,267	1,208	1,342
New York.....	67,578	55,187	74,757	52,880	82,814	48,036
Boston.....	143,989	75,546	111,666	75,357	72,400	73,891
Providence, R. I.....	1,566	470	5,783	78	211	674
Philadelphia.....	16,213	13,582	13,690	6,784	6,919	3,253
Baltimore.....	12,328	7,288	5,507	3,640	4,698	3,278
Portsmouth.....	5,733	3,491	2,769	1,053	4,136	
Other coastwise ports..	3,132	1,437	910	2,423	3,280	3,000
Western States.....	1,500	2,500	5,000	6,000	2,500	2,000
Total.....	1,201,897	724,508	1,054,857	984,616	895,375	1,088,870

The recapitulation of the above statement, which follows, shows the aggregate quantity of cotton shipped to the leading commercial nations, as well as that sent to different ports in the United States, and designated as "coastwise."

RECAPITULATION.

	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>	<i>Bales.</i>
Great Britain.....	654,083	385,368	562,320	585,888	527,675	679,438
France.....	140,968	95,719	159,528	125,020	119,980	180,875
North of Europe.....	50,056	26,297	28,841	33,035	17,907	50,882
S. of Europe and China	104,751	57,623	84,086	92,458	52,855	43,543
Coastwise.....	252,039	159,501	220,082	148,215	176,958	134,132
Total.....	1,201,897	724,508	1,054,857	984,616	895,375	1,088,870

We give a similar table of the exports of tobacco for the same years:—

EXPORTS OF TOBACCO FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR SIX YEARS.

Whither exported.	1847-8.	1846-7.	1845-6.	1844-5.	1843-4.	1842-3.
	<i>Hhds.</i>	<i>Hhds.</i>	<i>Hhds.</i>	<i>Hhds.</i>	<i>Hhds.</i>	<i>Hhds.</i>
Liverpool.....	8,706	3,374	8,976	4,947	8,808	6,788
London.....	10,008	5,173	12,888	6,475	8,291	9,851
Glasgow and Greenock....
Cowes, Falmouth, &c.....	1,153	1,148	2,641	1,131	5,424	10,798
Cork, Belfast, &c.....
Havre.....	2,201	1,159	2,215	3,514	4,846	4,648
Bordeaux.....	128	242	1,067	1,565	1,156	2,332
Marseilles.....	2,625	2,096	1,006	3,934	5,102	4,665
Nantz, Cette, and Rouen.
Amsterdam.....	451	50	3,775	2,770
Rotterdam and Ghent.....	75	568	1,104	1,014	917	2,933
Bremen.....	5,252	4,446	6,328	12,012	9,602	7,888
Antwerp, &c.....	3,371	1,652	4,294	3,862	2,178	5,657
Hamburgh.....	239	403	181	786	2,303	1,477
Gottenburgh.....	945	949	943	909	734	963
Spain and Gibraltar.....	7,692	11,795	9,843	6,749	10,681	4,496
Havana, Mexico, &c.....	617	903	1,601	1,063
Genoa, Trieste, &c.....	3,388	5,046	2,375	3,001	1,556	1,760
China.....
Other foreign ports.....	975	1,008	298	794	1,177	217
New York.....	9,573	5,458	4,848	6,936	6,960	10,533
Boston.....	1,619	2,664	913	4,938	2,585	3,650
Providence, R. I.....
Philadelphia.....	1,369	2,779	1,030	2,536	1,286	2,845
Baltimore.....	200	301	427	478	1,167	2,433
Portsmouth.....
Other coastwise ports.....	228	115	217	2,145	1,100	2,194
Western States.....
Total.....	60,364	50,376	62,045	68,679	81,249	89,891

RECAPITULATION.

Great Britain.....	19,867	9,695	24,505	12,553	22,523	27,437
France.....	4,954	3,497	4,288	9,013	11,104	11,645
North of Europe.....	10,475	8,018	13,301	19,051	20,175	21,618
South of Europe and China	12,079	17,849	12,516	11,029	14,349	7,536
Coastwise.....	12,989	11,317	7,435	17,033	13,098	21,655
Total.....	60,364	50,376	62,045	68,679	81,249	89,891

The following table exhibits the comparative arrivals, exports, and stocks of cotton and tobacco at New Orleans for the last ten years, from the 1st of September in each year to the 31st of August:—

Years.	COTTON.			TOBACCO.		
	Arrivals. <i>Bales.</i>	Exports. <i>Bales.</i>	Stocks. <i>Bales.</i>	Arrivals. <i>Hhds.</i>	Exports. <i>Hhds.</i>	Stocks. <i>Hhds.</i>
1847-8.....	1,213,805	1,201,897	37,401	55,882	60,364	14,854
1846-7.....	740,669	724,508	23,493	55,588	50,376	22,336
1845-6.....	1,053,633	1,054,857	6,332	72,896	62,045	17,924
1844-5.....	979,238	984,616	7,556	71,493	68,679	7,673

1843-4.....	910,854	895,375	12,934	82,435	81,249	4,850
1842-3.....	1,089,642	1,088,870	4,700	92,509	89,891	4,873
1841-2.....	740,155	749,267	4,428	67,555	68,058	2,253
1840-1.....	822,870	821,228	14,490	53,170	54,667	2,758
1839-40.....	954,445	949,320	17,867	43,827	40,436	4,409
1838-9.....	578,514	579,179	10,308	28,153	30,780	1,294

EXPORTS OF SUGAR FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR THREE YEARS, (UP THE RIVER EXCEPTED,) FROM
1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

	1847-8.		1846-7.		1845-6.	
Whither exported.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York.....	36,053	2,600	16,754	802	33,068	2,448
Philadelphia.....	19,808	1,512	11,653	653	21,804	2,421
Charleston, S. C.....	3,355	539	3,147	647	3,412	1,198
Savannah.....	806	1,352	58	1,062	65
Providence and Bristol, R. I.....
Boston.....	3,674	869	695	43	3,208	1,288
Baltimore.....	11,149	3,258	5,981	395	9,143	1,672
Norfolk.....	6,888	861	4,806	966	3,997	1,215
Richmond and Petersburg, Va. }
Alexandria, D. C.....	230	156	175
Mobile.....	5,310	1,604	3,783	1,038	5,739	1,020
Apalachicola and Pensacola.....	1,738	426	1,415	473	1,067	158
Other ports.....	171	273	371	76	533	8
Total.....	89,182	11,942	50,113	5,451	83,208	11,493

EXPORTS OF MOLASSES FROM NEW ORLEANS FOR THREE YEARS, (UP THE RIVER EXCEPTED,) FROM
1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

	1847-8.		1846-7.		1845-6.	
Whither exported.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.
New York.....	5,747	31,225	2,842	15,861	3,002	17,515
Philadelphia.....	117	10,871	60	4,512	580	13,925
Charleston, S. C.....	6,660	3,238	2	6,328
Savannah.....	118	2,334	1,752	2,214
Providence and Bristol, R. I.....	1,143	602	579	280
Boston.....	1,177	5,067	22	413	318	1,402
Baltimore.....	1,522	12,002	337	3,348	185	5,181
Norfolk.....	7,121	252	3,225	27	3,767
Richmond and Petersburg, Va. }
Alexandria, D. C.....	112	511	428
Mobile.....	9,645	6,497	10	13,464
Apalachicola and Pensacola.....	3,984	2,565	2,039
Other ports.....	2,142	1,015	540	286	671
Total.....	11,866	90,638	4,053	42,208	4,703	67,214

The exports of flour, pork, bacon, lard, beef, lead, whiskey, and corn for the three years, 1845 to 1848, are given in the following table :—

EXPORTS OF FLOUR, PORK, BACON, LARD, BEEF, LEAD, WHISKEY, AND CORN FOR THE THREE
YEARS FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

	1847-8.							
Ports.	Flour. Bbls.	Pork. Bbls.	Bacon. Hhds.	Lard. Kgs.	Beef. Bbls.	Lead. Pigs.	Whiskey. Bbls.	Corn. Sacks.
New York.....	80,940	103,885	10,542	299,871	6,662	358,989	9,785	262,333
Boston.....	210,545	104,290	5,655	391,690	8,523	144,181	687	268,501
Philadelphia.....	26,452	15,920	5,482	59,998	575	79,438	4,226	6,967
Baltimore.....	50	31,439	6,028	74,947	1,528	10,431	5,364
Charleston.....	6,235	2,328	4,218	9,777	311	35	12,419	6,937
Oth. coastw. pts.	39,635	13,241	11,865	13,203	2,725	37,977	59,007
Cuba.....	14,038	2,134	918	132,407	427	59,486
Oth. foreign pts.	94,625	45,126	1,346	413,603	20,630	1,755	562	560,630
Total.....	472,519	318,363	46,054	1,395,496	41,381	594,829	71,020	1,223,861

1846-7.

Ports.	Flour. Bbls.	Pork. Bbls.	Bacon. Hhds.	Lard. Kgs.	Beef. Bbls.	Lead. Pigs.	Whiskey. Bbls.	Corn. Sacks.
New York.....	63,877	77,828	3,480	209,945	9,167	339,560	8,210	107,890
Boston.....	96,507	76,755	2,379	165,513	9,053	123,917	1,162	139,678
Philadelphia	13,296	5,247	852	53,377	564	135,489	4,856	15,324
Baltimore	3,638	17,167	1,159	23,251	556	9,962	7,103	3,253
Charleston.....	37,720	1,004	2,874	5,362	150	465	8,180	800
Oth. coastw. pts.	8,381	11,033	11,092	12,813	2,943	1,000	33,005	43,842
Cuba.....	43,051	1,092	1,015	144,002	467	149	133,798
Oth. foreign pts.	1,053,037	40,394	3,053	293,714	29,096	13,716	743	2,076,228
Total.....	1,319,506	230,520	25,904	907,977	51,996	624,257	63,259	2,520,813

1845-6.

Ports.	Flour. Bbls.	Pork. Bbls.	Bacon. Hhds.	Lard. Kgs.	Beef. Bbls.	Lead. Pigs.	Whiskey. Bbls.	Corn. Sacks.
New York.....	83,854	88,228	2,873	204,323	5,162	309,681	4,098	172,186
Boston.....	122,148	89,164	846	190,504	3,501	139,364	150	289,523
Philadelphia	250	29,783	1,238	69,153	99	70,113	647	8,671
Baltimore	19,523	729	39,619	446	11,961	2,175	1,000
Charleston.....	11,476	2,828	1,962	5,607	275	4,620	8,982	87,953
Oth. coastw. pts.	68,441	13,434	12,720	20,671	4,490	8,460	41,869	175,581
Cuba.....	7,094	1,005	610	92,336	391
Oth. foreign pts.	279,931	28,354	64	168,521	43,798	174,086	260	211,674
Total.....	573,194	272,319	21,042	790,904	58,162	718,285	58,181	941,589

MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF SHIPS, BARKS, BRIGS, SCHOONERS, AND STEAMBOATS FOR FOUR YEARS, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST.

Months.	1847-8.							1846-7.						
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	S. Ships.	Total.	S. Boats.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	S. Ships.	Total.	S. Boats.
September.....	17	13	15	41	6	92	184	37	12	19	42	7	117	141
October.....	43	27	18	44	12	144	288	78	30	31	80	7	226	177
November.....	146	45	31	62	15	299	266	67	35	63	63	9	237	281
December.....	99	61	66	72	14	312	311	72	45	62	43	8	230	337
January.....	102	82	74	97	18	373	349	78	64	91	99	6	338	346
February.....	97	60	59	74	16	306	316	42	34	63	85	5	229	298
March.....	97	50	47	82	17	293	327	83	53	72	105	1	314	317
April.....	72	42	40	68	11	233	250	86	41	45	86	6	264	293
May.....	90	42	35	96	22	285	229	77	51	87	166	11	392	284
June.....	88	39	33	49	20	229	171	51	38	54	101	19	263	251
July.....	68	34	24	59	26	211	152	53	30	52	67	16	218	174
August.....	36	14	20	51	29	150	134	45	18	24	52	14	153	125
Total.....	955	509	462	795	206	2,927	2,977	769	451	663	989	109	2,981	4,024

Months.	1845-6.							1844-5.						
	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Total.	S. boats.		Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schrs.	Total.	S. boats.	
September.....	24	7	7	14	52	164		26	9	12	8	55	120	
October.....	86	25	20	26	157	234		69	16	14	6	105	165	
November.....	81	22	33	39	175	220		74	25	29	28	156	233	
December.....	80	49	48	42	219	245		83	39	37	29	188	289	
January.....	67	77	74	62	280	298		118	48	57	48	271	279	
February.....	29	21	36	50	136	293		52	44	56	52	204	272	
March.....	67	24	33	32	156	299		93	40	62	49	244	281	
April.....	110	40	47	37	234	294		78	34	48	34	194	242	
May.....	60	30	27	61	178	271		32	19	12	25	88	228	
June.....	44	25	42	30	141	184		52	12	6	14	84	168	
July.....	52	24	39	61	176	151		23	8	8	12	51	154	
August.....	43	33	41	64	181	117		18	3	10	11	42	99	
Total....	743	377	447	518	2,085	2,770		718	297	351	316	1,682	2,530	

According to the census of 1840, there were eight commercial and 375 commission houses in foreign trade, with a capital of \$16,490,000; 1,881 retail stores, with a capital of \$11,018,225; 32 lumber yards, with a capital of \$67,800; six furnaces, with a capital of \$355,000; hardware was manufactured to the amount of \$30,000; one cotton factory with 700 spindles employed a capital of \$20,000; tobacco manufactures employed a capital of \$60,000; one tannery had a capital of \$50,000; two distilleries employed a capital of \$56,000; three sugar refineries produced to the amount of \$700,000; three steam saw mills had a capital of \$175,000; 18 printing offices, 5 binderies, 9 daily, 6 weekly, and 2 semi-weekly newspapers employed a capital of \$162,200; 201 brick or stone houses, and 210 wooden houses were built, at a cost of \$2,234,300. The total capital employed in manufactures was \$1,774,200. There were two colleges, with 105 students; 10 academies, with 440 students; 25 schools, with 975 scholars.

Art. V.—COMMERCIAL ADVANTAGES OF CALIFORNIA.

It is not our object in this article to expatiate upon the beauty of scenery and remarkable natural objects which present themselves at every step throughout this splendid acquisition to our wide-spread republic, and which are so happily delineated by the namesake and near relative of the great American poet.* And although the work before us is rich in anecdote and fruitful in illustration, possessing in a great degree the charm of romance with all the attractions of the most agreeable and touching inventions of genius, the character of our Journal forbids the indulgence of our wishes in quoting from this portion of it.

It is our duty to point out to the merchant, the mechanic and agriculturist what is of more permanent interest, at a period when millions of the industrious and enterprising are compelled, by circumstances beyond their control, to abandon their homes in the old world and seek refuge in the new.

Mr. Bryant informs us that Upper California was discovered in 1548 by Cavello, the Spanish navigator. In 1578 the northern portion of it was visited by Sir Francis Drake, who called it New Albion. It was first colonized by the Spaniards in 1768, and formed a province of Mexico until after the revolution in that country. It is bounded by Oregon on the North, the forty-second degree of north latitude being the boundary line of the two territories; on the East by the Rocky Mountains, on the South by Sonora and Old or Lower California, and on the West by the Pacific Ocean; its extent from north to south being about 700 miles, and the average distance from east to west is about the same. The strip of country along the Pacific Ocean, about 700 miles in length and an average of 125 miles in breadth, bounded on the east by the Sierra Nevada and on the west by the Pacific, is the only fertile portion of this extensive territory.

The Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers have each a course of from 300 to 400 miles; the first flowing from the north and the last from the south, and both emptying into the Bay of San Francisco at the same point. They

* What I saw in California in 1846 and 1847. By EDWIN BRYANT, Alcalde of San Francisco. 1 vol. 12mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

water the large and fertile valley lying between the Sierra Nevada and the coast range of mountains. This noble valley, the first in California and one of the most magnificent in the world, is about 500 miles long and 50 wide. It is bounded on the east by the great Snowy Mountains, and on the west by the low range, which in many places dwindles into insignificant hills, and has its northern terminus at the Strait of Carquines, on the Bay of San Francisco, and its southern near the Colorado river, which is the largest in Upper California and has a course of about 1,000 miles, emptying itself into the Gulf of California in latitude about 32° North.

The Bay of San Francisco is about 45 miles long at its extreme points if taken in a straight line in a north north-west and south south-east direction, and its greatest width about 12 miles. From its position and extent, the city and port of the same name must become the depot for all the produce of the great rivers and valleys. It will also become the great naval station of the Pacific, and here also will be the rendezvous for whalers. The exports of California will rapidly increase; and to the 150,000 hides and 200,000 arrobas of tallow, our enterprising countrymen will annually add increasing quantities of beef, pork, and breadstuffs, as well as fish. Salmon of the largest size are taken here in great quantities, and will form an important item.

The town of San Francisco is regularly laid out in lots of 50 varas square, generally six of which form a block. Some, however, are in lots of 100 varas, and are also in blocks of six. The streets are from 50 to 110 feet wide. There are large hotels here, besides boarding and public houses. Two wharves are nearly completed, which are indispensable to the mercantile houses, and other important facilities for trade are in progress. The rapidity of the growth of this place, we are confident in stating, will far surpass that of our most prosperous western cities. Several very extensive warehouses have been erected, and many new stores, shops, and dwellings were in progress of erection when the "gold fever" commenced, which has deprived two hundred houses of tenants, and will no doubt for the moment check the growth of the town.

A writer who had lived in Oregon thus writes from California:—

My letters from Oregon, you may recollect, were quite favorable to that country. Possessing a mild, genial, and healthful climate, much good land—the Willamette in particular—and capable of raising nearly all descriptions of grain and vegetables, it gives pretty good satisfaction to most emigrants. Though not finding it that imaginary El Dorado where honey flows in streams and money grows on trees, many of the most restless and roving have come here. In papers from home, I perceive quite a false story told of our California climate by some *volunteer* writers. They say it is a land of fogs. If so, Italy must be a land of fogs too, and far from being so delightful an abode as tourists tell us, since intelligent travellers over both say there is a strong resemblance between the two. Immediately on the seaboard—say San Francisco for one—there is during a part of the year, though only for a portion of the day, much wind and fog. But in the interior a little, in the vale of Sonoma for instance, though immediately on the bay and but eight leagues from the ocean, there is nothing of the sort to object to. The thermometer ranges at San Francisco from 60° to 75°. A peach orchard bloomed in January and the fruit uninjured. Culinary vegetables are raised the year round. Wheat succeeds admirably, yielding, in quality and quantity, equal to Genesee or

Egyptian. In grapes and wine this land will, ere long, challenge the world. It is emphatically the land of the vine.

Sheep are very prolific, and subject to no diseases; and here is just the pasturage and climate for growing the finest Merino and Saxony fleeces, Old Spain and New Holland not excepted.

ARRIVALS OF MERCHANT VESSELS AT THE PORT OF SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA, FROM APRIL 1ST, 1847, TO APRIL 1ST, 1848.

	Name.	Master.	Where from.
April.....	Schooner General Kearny.....	Shelly.....	Sandwich Islands.
	" Currency Lass.....	McLean.....	"
	Bark Columbia.....	Duncan.....	Columbia River.
	Schooner Commodore Shubrick.....	Von Pfister.....	Sandwich Islands.
	Ship Brutus.....	Adams.....	New York.
	Bark Toulon.....	Crosby.....	Columbia River.
	" Whiton.....	Gelston.....	New York.
	Brig Prima Vera.....	Stenner.....	San Pedro.
	Bark Guypuscuana.....	Baca.....	"
May.....	Brig Elizabeth.....	King.....	Monterey.
	" Commodore Stockton.....	Young.....	Oregon.
	Ship Barnstable.....	Hall.....	San Pedro.
	Schooner Santa Cruz.....	Lowe.....	Sandwich Islands.
	" Commodore Shubrick.....	Von Pfister.....	Monterey.
	" Annis.....	Lementure.....	"
	" Commodore Stockton.....	Young.....	Bodega.
June.....	Schooner Commodore Shubrick.....	Von Pfister.....	Santa Cruz.
	Brig Francisco.....	Lamoine.....	Sandwich Islands.
	Schooner Prudence.....	Louis.....	"
	" Matilda.....	Rabben.....	Monterey.
July.....	Brig Euphemia.....	Russem.....	Sandwich Islands.
	Schooner Julia.....	Selden.....	Monterey.
	Ship Barnstable.....	Hall.....	San Pedro.
	" Confederacino.....	Jones.....	Chili.
	" Maria Helena.....	Kerphy.....	"
	Bark Tasso.....	Lindsey.....	"
	" Whiton.....	Gelston.....	"
	Brig Laura Ann.....	Thomas.....	"
August.....	Brig Santa Cruz.....	Lowe.....	Santa Cruz.
	" Francisco.....	McClung.....	"
	Ship Mount Vernon.....	Quin.....	Columbia River.
	Brig Prima Vera.....	Stenner.....	Monterey.
	Bark Georgianna.....	Kelly.....	"
	Ship Triad.....	Horton.....	North-west Coast.
	Brig Henry.....	Bray.....	Columbia River.
	Bark Guypuscuana.....	Baca.....	Southern Coast.
	Ship Obed Michell.....	Wing.....	North-west Coast.
	" Pacific.....	Edwards.....	"
	" Evelina.....	Goodwin.....	U. States via Sandwich Isl'da.
September.	Bark Janet.....	Dring.....	Columbia River.
	Ship Citizen.....	Lansing.....	North-west Coast.
	" Emily Morgan.....	Ewer.....	New Bedford.
	" Copia.....	Taber.....	"
	" California.....	Fisher.....	"
	" Euphrates.....	Edwards.....	"
	Bark Iris.....	Henes.....	New London.
	Brig Malek Adhel.....	Phelps.....	Monterey.
	" Matilda.....	—.....	Santa Cruz.
	Ship Vesper.....	Clark.....	New Bedford.
	" Covington.....	Duval.....	Warren, Rhode Island.
	" Bowditch.....	Borden.....	"
	" Magnolia.....	Simmons.....	New Bedford.
	Brig Mary Ann.....	Paty.....	Santa Cruz.
	" Elizabeth.....	King.....	San Diego.

	Name.	Master.	Where from.
September...	Schooner Prudence.....	Mitchell.....	Sandwich Islands.
	" Commodore Shubrick.....	Morgan.....	"
	" Alice.....	Hinckley.....	San Solito.
	Ship Armata.....	Fitch.....	New London.
October....	Ship Naslednich.....	Harnden.....	Sitka.
	" Southampton.....	Thornburn.....	Monterey.
	Schooner Commodore Stockton.....	—.....	Bodega.
	Ship Confederacino.....	Jones.....	San Pedro.
	" Clementine.....	Hashagen.....	"
November..	Ship Corea.....	Hempstead.....	New London.
	Bark Whition.....	Gelston.....	Columbia River.
	Brig Henry.....	Kelborn.....	Astoria.
	Schooner Currency Lass.....	McLean.....	Sandwich Islands.
December..	Brig Laura Ann.....	Thomas.....	"
	Bark Angola.....	Varney.....	Monterey.
	Brig Henry.....	Kelborn.....	"
	Bark Natalia.....	—.....	Chili via Sandwich Islands.
	Brig Commodore Stockton.....	Kinch.....	Bodega.
January....	Brig Lady Adams.....	Hanna.....	Callao.
	" Malek Adhel.....	Phelps.....	Monterey.
	Bark Anita.....	Shoive.....	San Pedro.
February....	Brig Eagle.....	Levett.....	Canton.
	Ship Sweden.....	Nott.....	United States.
	" Anita.....	Woodworth.....	Monterey.
March.....	Ship Barnstable.....	Hall.....	San Pedro.
	Brig Sabine.....	Vincent.....	Boston.
	" Providence.....	Hinckley.....	Sandwich Islands.

The following additional statistics were furnished by the Collector of the Port of San Francisco, and embraces the quarter ending December 31, 1847:—

Total value of exports for the quarter \$49,597 53, of which \$30,353 85 were of the produce of California, and were shipped as follows:—To Peru, \$21,448 35; Mazatlan, \$560; Russian America, \$7,285 50; Tahiti, \$700; Sandwich Islands, \$320. The balance were of the produce of foreign countries, \$19,343 68, and shipped as follows:—To the United States, \$2,160; Sandwich Islands, \$12,442 18; Mazatlan, \$4,831 50.

Total imports for the same period \$53,589 73, of which \$6,790 54 came from the United States, \$7,701 59 from Oregon, \$3,676 44 from Chili, \$31,740 73 from the Sandwich Islands, \$2,471 32 from Russian America, \$492 57 from Bremen, and \$710 54 from Mexico.

At present a large portion of the trade of San Francisco is indirect, and consequently costly to the consumers, who have to pay duties and profits to the merchants and governments of other countries by these channels of traffic. In selecting the port of San Francisco for a naval establishment upon the Pacific, our government has shown a degree of sagacity worthy of the highest statesmanship. Without the succor which American ports could extend to our commerce, we already have four-fifths of all the shipping upon the Pacific under our flag. With the assistance of a secure naval establishment on the western coast, under American laws, our commercial interests must rapidly increase.

It has been shown that about \$32,000 of the trade of San Francisco for the three months ending 31st December, 1847, was with the Sandwich Islands, and mostly for articles *not* the growth or produce of them. It would be a moderate estimate to allow the same amount of trade with all the other California ports for the same period, and this would be an annual indirect and costly trade of about \$250,000. The amount of trade

which the Sandwich Islanders have heretofore annually enjoyed from our men-of-war, whalers, and merchantmen, is about \$450,000, which must soon be transferred to our merchants on the coast of California, and is mostly for beef, pork, flour, poultry, vegetables, &c.

We notice by the papers of the day, that companies are being formed in various parts of our Union for the purpose of emigrating in large bodies to California, and there is every indication of an extensive ingress annually for many years to come. The country is particularly healthy and ample for a large influx of population, which will be sure to create a good market for all the soil can produce.

Most of the supplies for our squadrons in the East Indies and the Pacific are shipped from the United States, passing twice under the Equator in a six months' voyage, and around either Cape Horn or the Cape of Good Hope; and articles so perishable as provisions are greatly injured by such a voyage if not rendered valueless, or, what is worse, a fruitful source of sickness among the crews. It requires but little attention so to systematize the business of supplies, in order that beef, pork, bread and flour shall be furnished as cheap in California as in New York.

A recent arrival from Canton has shown the practicability of voyages being made between San Francisco and China in forty-five days; and the average period of voyages from San Francisco to the Mexican ports down the coast and to the Sandwich Islands, is less than twenty days.

It is impossible at present to make a correct estimate of the mineral wealth of California, so lately is it that the subject has received the attention of the public. The discoveries already made, however, warrant the assertion that it is among the richest mineral countries in the world. Gold, silver, quicksilver, iron, copper, lead, sulphur, and saltpetre have been found. The gold washings at the American Fork and Feather Rivers are yielding (as we are informed by a communication made by Mr. Larkin, navy agent at San Francisco, to the Navy Department) an average of ten dollars per man per diem to more than a thousand therein employed; and their success will doubtless attract extensive emigration from the States, which the more reliable and permanent advantages would fail to secure. The establishment of a Branch Mint at the gold region would be of very great advantage to the government as well as inhabitants, as it would save the expense and risk of shipping specie to the shores of the Pacific for the payment of the troops and crews.

Our government has extended a fostering hand to Messrs. Howland and Aspinwall in the establishment of the new line of Pacific steamers, the first of which, the "California," left us for Rio and Valparaiso in October last, and will receive passengers at Panama on the 1st of January, (who will leave New York in December,) and probably arrive at San Francisco about the 15th of January.

Art. VI.—THE NEXT CENSUS OF THE UNITED STATES.

A MEMORIAL or petition from New York invited the early attention of Congress, at its late session, to the census to be taken in 1850, so that there might be more time for maturing the plan of taking it, and consequently a greater probability of obtaining a stock of statistical information of so much value not merely to statesmen and all who cultivate political philosophy, but to every class of productive industry. The subject, however, having no party bearing, it was not acted upon, and the next session being a short one, there is danger that the law for taking the census of 1850 may be passed in the same hurried way as that for the census of 1840, and have the same defects.

The part of that document which relates to the annual products of the country being confessedly the most inaccurate, is the one most susceptible of improvement, and it well deserves the consideration of those who have turned their attention to statistical inquiries, since they may thus make valuable suggestions to their representatives in Congress, who may, perchance, not be familiar with such topics, and who are, moreover, often so much distracted by other subjects as not fully to profit by the knowledge which they have.

But after an *enumeration* of the annual products is correctly made, it is of no less importance that there should be accurate estimates of their *value*; and as these estimates are often made on crude and mistaken principles, the following remarks are suggested, by way of caution to those who are not conversant with this branch of political arithmetic.

A principal source of error in our estimates of the annual products of industry and capital, is in counting the same article twice. Thus, in reckoning the value of houses built within the year, the bricks or timber which have been used may have been estimated under those separate heads; so may the locks, nails, and hinges, the glass, paint, &c., and consequently the value of all these should be deducted from the gross value of the houses, to show the clear addition which the latter have made to the annual product.

Sometimes, indeed, without such deductions, the same article would be counted more than twice. Thus, the iron which had been reckoned as the product of the furnace, may be again reckoned in the products of the rolling or slitting mill; a third time in the manufacture of nails, or fabrics of sheet iron; and even a fourth time in the gross value of a house or a ship.

In like manner, in our estimates of manufactures, after reckoning the value of the leather made in the year, if we reckon the whole value of the shoes, saddles, bridles, trunks, &c., the leather is counted twice; and the value of the hides, which had been comprehended in the estimate of the cattle or of the imports, would be counted three times. In this way the amount of the manufactures in some States has been grossly exaggerated.

Nor must we fall into the opposite error, as some have done, of confounding the nett addition to the wealth of the country with the value of its annual product. The first, which consists of the excess of production over consumption, bears a very small proportion to the actual product, since nearly all the value that is annually produced is annually consumed. Such excess, even in the most thriving countries, probably never exceeds,

even if it reaches, 5 per cent of the annual product; and although a knowledge of its amount is desirable, as making the addition that has been made to the national capital, which is one of its sources of wealth, yet it is of far less importance than a knowledge of the value of the whole product, since that constitutes the fund from which the whole population is to be fed, clothed, housed, and furnished with all that is to be consumed both productively and unproductively. Thus, of the annual products of agriculture, one part is productively consumed in feeding the industrious classes or useful animals, in furnishing the seed for a future crop, or in supplying materials for export; and the other part is unproductively consumed by the idle classes, consisting of a small proportion of men, a somewhat larger proportion of women, and more than half the children.

The value of the gross annual product is not only most important, but is also most practicable. We can make a much nearer approximation to the value of the whole product than to that of the several parts of which it is composed, since each is subjected to its own uncertainty, besides sharing in that of the whole product. We can, for example, make a nearer approach to the value of the whole crop of wheat than we can, first, to the values which respectively replace what was consumed in making it in paying laborers, in feeding work horses and oxen, in the cost of the seed, and in the wear and tear of the farming utensils; and secondly, to the values which remain as the profits of capital and of rent.

In estimating the vegetable products of agriculture, we should take the value of each at the place of production, or at that market to which it is transported by the labor appertaining to the farm or plantation. The increased value at more distant markets would be the result of the cost and profits of transportation, which should be separately estimated.

But the value of the *animal* products of agriculture presents a problem of more difficulty, since so far as the live stock have been fed in the year on articles separately valued, to that amount deduction should be made from the value of their natural increase. That increase, too, differs in the different species of stock, and in different systems of husbandry, and the different conditions in which they are sent to market. The price of those fitted for the shambles is commonly double, or more than double of the general average price.

Two modes of estimating this class of agricultural products have been adopted. One is to estimate the portion annually *slaughtered*, (supposed to be one-fourth of the whole number,) and about one-sixth part of the horses, at their ordinary market price, as part of the produce of the pasture land. The other is to reckon one-fourth of every species of live stock at the average price of the *whole* of such species, and also the whole of the hay secured from the land.

The first mode is adopted by Mr. McCulloch in his statistical account of Great Britain, who thus estimates the annual agricultural product of England and Wales.

I. The annual crops.

Crops.	Acres.	Produce per acre. Quarters.	Total produce. Quarters.	Price per quarter.	Value.
Wheat.....	3,800,000	34	12,350,000	50s.	£30,875,000
Barley and rye.....	900,000	4	3,600,000	30	5,400,000
Oats and beans.....	3,000,000	4½	13,500,000	25	16,875,000
Roots.....	1,200,000	£5 5s.			13,125,000
Clover.....	1,300,000	per acre.	29,400,000		
					£66,275,000

To this sum he adds for hops, &c., £5,750,000, making the total value of the annual crops of England and Wales, £72,900,000.

II. The various products of the *pasture land* he estimates at £3 10s. an acre, amounting to £59,500,000, which sum he thinks probably consists of the following items:—

Cattle, 1,100,000, at £13 each.....	£14,300,000
Calves, 200,000, at £3 each.....	600,000
Sheep and lambs, 6,800,000, at £1 10s. each.....	10,200,000
Wool, (exclusive of slaughtered sheep,) 338,000 packs, at £12 each.....	4,056,000
Hogs and pigs, 555,000, at £1 16s. each.....	1,000,000
Horses, 200,000 full grown, annually produced, at £15 each.....	3,000,000
Poultry, eggs, rabbits, deer, &c.....	1,344,000
Meadow and grass for work and pleasure horses.....	13,000,000
Dairy produce, or milk, butter, and cheese.....	12,000,000
Total.....	£59,500,000

The other mode is adopted by Professor Tucker in his "Progress of the United States;" and though he estimates the whole quantity of hay at the market price, yet as he reckons one-fourth of the live stock (the assumed average increase) at the ordinary prices of all descriptions, and not at the prices of those fatted for slaughter, as Mr. McCulloch had done, there is not a difference of the half of 1 per cent in the two modes when applied to this class of products in the United States, as may be seen in the following comparison:—

ACCORDING TO THE ESTIMATE MADE IN THE "PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES."

Horses and mules, one-fourth	1,083,904	are valued at	\$53,035,410
Cattle,	"	4,742,896	" 37,586,585
Sheep,	"	4,827,843	" 6,913,038
Hogs,	"	6,575,323	" 11,753,386

\$109,288,419

The whole crop of hay..... 80,081,000

\$189,339,419

If the estimate of the same animal products be made on the principles adopted by Mr. McCulloch, that is, if one-sixth of the horses and mules be taken as the annual product, and they be valued higher than the general average for being *full grown*, say one-sixth, and the fourth part of the other live stock be valued at double the average price of all descriptions, by reason of their being fit for slaughter, the result will be as follows:—

Horses and mules, one-sixth part full grown.....	\$41,259,763
Cattle, one-fourth slaughtered.....	75,173,170
Sheep, ".....	13,826,076
Hogs, ".....	23,506,772

\$153,765,781

*Meadow and grass for pleasure and work horses bearing the same proportion to \$153,765,781 as £13,000,000 bears to £59,200,000..... 36,459,000

\$190,224,781

* In strictness, the £13,000,000 should be compared with the £59,500,000 *minus* the value of the poultry, &c., the wool and the dairy produce amounting to £17,400,000, which correction would swell the amount for meadow and grass in the United States to ten or twelve millions more than the preceding estimate. The whole amount which Mr. McCulloch allows for clover and grass in England is about \$96,000,000.

It may, however, be remarked, that if the number of slaughtered cattle is one-fourth, as Mr. McCulloch supposes, (and in this country the proportion is probably greater,) much more than the same proportion should be allowed for the annual increase of the sheep and hogs. That of sheep cannot be less than *one-third*, and that of hogs not less than *one-half* the whole number. When, moreover, it is recollected that, in the preceding estimate, the slaughtered cattle are rated at little more than one-third of the price at which Mr. McCulloch rates those in England, and sheep and hogs in the like proportion, we must be satisfied that if the English estimate is not greatly too high, that of the United States must be much too low.

But probably neither of these modes make close approaches to the truth. The only basis for a correct estimate of this part of our agricultural products would be an enumeration of each species of live stock slaughtered in the year, separately valued in each State.

In our estimates of the national income, the rents of houses and other buildings have not been commonly included. There seems, however, to be no propriety in the omission, whether we regard them as rent or the profits of capital, since the rent of arable and pasture lands, and the profits of agricultural capital, as well as the wages of agricultural labor, are all comprehended in the value of the annual products of the land, and there is as much reason for counting the profits of one species of real estate as those of another. The capital thus vested greatly exceeds in amount that employed in commerce. It is of equal utility, and if its rate of profit is less than that vested in commerce or manufactures, it is much more solid and permanent. Indeed, it is in this form principally that the nett profits of other employments of capital and industry add to the stock of the national wealth.

The last census, without directly affording information of the amount derived from this source, furnishes us with some data on which we may make a rough estimate of it. It states the number of houses erected in 1839-40 to be 54,113, at a cost of \$41,917,401. This may, then, be regarded as the provision necessary for the annual increase to the population. That increase is about 2.8 per cent annually, and if the houses previously built were of equal value with those built in 1839-40, then the whole amount vested in this way would be near fifteen hundred millions of dollars, (\$1,497,000,000;) but the progressive increase of individual as well as of national wealth, requires us to set a lower estimate on the *previous* buildings, and for the amount thus reduced, the average rate of profit afforded by this species of property would give us the amount of the annual rents. If we, at a venture, deduct 20 per cent from \$1,497,000,000, and estimate the rent at 8 per cent on the balance, (\$1,097,600,000,) it will give us \$878,080,000 as the annual profit from this source when the last census was taken. But we can rely on no estimate that is not founded on an actual enumeration of the rents paid, or their equivalent value, to the occupant proprietors.

In comparing the proportion of the annual product which falls to each individual in different countries, if we would make a just estimate of their comparative abundance and comfort, we must deduct the amount which they severally contribute to the support of government, or pay in taxes of every kind. Thus, the amount paid in England in taxes and poor rates is not much short of twenty dollars for each individual; whereas all that is

paid in the United States to the General and the State government, does not average four dollars to each individual.

In conclusion, the author of the preceding remarks hopes that what he has here said may call forth the attention of others to the approaching census; and he takes the liberty of adding that they would derive valuable suggestions from the statistical work of Mr. Russel, of New York, published in 1840, and that of Mr. Seaman, of Detroit, published in 1846.

ART. VII.—THE PROPOSED RAILROAD TO THE PACIFIC.

WE cheerfully give place to the letter of Mr. Whitney, the projector of the majestic enterprise of completing a railroad from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Mr. Whitney's proposition is, to purchase sixty miles wide of the public domain from Lake Michigan to the Pacific Ocean, at a reduced price, and construct the road as an individual enterprise. He estimates the length of the road at 2,030 miles, allowing 250 miles for detour or windings; and its cost, when ready for operation, at \$60,000,000. This subject has been brought before both houses of Congress. In the House of Representatives it was referred to a select committee, and on the 23d of June, 1848, Mr. Pollock, as chairman of that committee, made an able and interesting report, favorable to the views of Mr. Whitney. We regret that the press of matter designed for the present number compels us to omit several passages in the report which we had marked to accompany the following letter, addressed by Mr. W. to the editor of this Magazine.

FREEMAN HUNT, ESQ., *Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, etc.*

DEAR SIR:—The unprecedented, and, I may say, outrageous attack from the Hon. Mr. Benton, in the United States Senate, on the 29th July last, which, it appears, was caused in part by his fears that I may make a claim on the government for having remained at Washington during four or five sessions, having walked upon the carpets of the capitol and annoyed members of Congress, renders it not improper (even without his permission) to simply state my position, so obnoxious to that gentleman.

I believe it is pretty generally known that I have devoted four years exclusively to the subject of a railroad from Lake Michigan to the Pacific Ocean, and that I devoted a part of two other years to the same subject in Asia. That I have explored and examined more than 800 miles of the route—explored 1,500 miles of the Missouri River, as also other streams, to ascertain where they could be bridged; and that a great part of the country over which I passed had never before been traversed except by savages, and those who accompanied me can attest to these facts; and now Mr. Benton says that my "surveys have extended only from one end of this capital to the other."

My explorations extended as far as was my first intention, and as far as was necessary. It was for my own account, and at my own expense, and its results not fully published to the world. My object was, to ascertain the facilities which the country might afford for, and the value of the lands on which depended the entire work. The explorations of Col. Fremont, with accounts from many others, had satisfied me of the feasibility of the whole route.

I have done all this at my own expense, and have never asked Congress to appropriate one dollar for me. Even the printing of maps to accompany reports of committees, has been objected to by Mr. Benton, and were furnished at my own expense; and in no instance has Congress paid for any extra printing.

In addition to all my time, I have expended a very handsome sum of money,

and have never made any claim upon Congress, and now Mr. Benton appears to be horrified from the fear of a claim, (except, perhaps, from a particular quarter;) and that his mind may not be "*disturbed*," but be at rest on my account, I do hereby forever renounce any, all, and every claim upon Congress or the people, for my efforts to get a railroad to Oregon.

My motive was, to benefit the country and the world. I was willing to give my life, my all, to the work which to me appeared so very important. If I have failed in my object, I am happy in knowing I have not drawn one dollar from the public treasury, but have heretofore paid large sums into it.

I am also happy in believing that the country at large understood and sustained me. Eighteen State legislatures (generally by unanimous votes of the two houses) passed resolutions approving and recommending the adoption of my plan, declaring it the only feasible one by which this great work could ever be accomplished, and instructing and requesting their delegates in Congress to vote for it.

A committee in the 28th Congress reported in its favor. The Senate's Committee on Public Lands of the 29th Congress, introduced a very full report unanimous in its favor, with a bill to carry it out. Said report contained a full though concise statement, geographical, commercial, and statistical, of all Asia, Japan, China, India, Polynesia, and all the islands, population, commerce, products, resources and all, which cost me much time and labor.

At the present session of Congress, the House appointed a select committee of nine, to examine and report upon it; the report was unanimous in its favor, with a bill to carry it out.

The Senate also appointed a select committee of five for the same object—Mr. Niles, (chairman,) Mr. Dixon H. Lewis, Mr. Bell, Mr. Felch, and Mr. Corwin. A bill was prepared by the chairman, and after examinations and amendments at several meetings, the committee was unanimous, and reported the bill to the Senate. On Saturday, 29th July last, Mr. Niles moved to take it up for consideration, when it was attacked in a boisterous and unparliamentary manner by Mr. Benton, who, it is presumed, had never read, or even knew, the enactments and conditions of the bill. He closed with a motion to lay the motion on the table, which, not being debateable, prevailed, 27 to 21, with several Senators absent, who are friendly to, and would vote for the bill; and several voted to lay Mr. Niles' motion on the table, believing there would not be time to act upon it at the close of the session, while there was so great a press of other unfinished business, as also the exciting territorial bills, and who say they will vote for my bill at a more suitable time.

To the people at large, to the many public meetings, and to the eighteen State legislatures, who have encouraged and sustained me, is due this explanation. I have acted for them, and not for myself; to them and to my country have I done my full duty, without the expectation of other reward than that of being the instrument of benefit to mankind. If they are satisfied with *this end*, I surely shall not complain.

If I have been troublesome to, and interrupted members of Congress, it was not for myself, but for my country, as a duty, and feeling that every intelligent gentleman (and more especially members of Congress) would find pleasure in examining a subject promising so much good; and I am happy in being able to say that in almost all instances I have been received as politely and civilly as I could have desired.

The work proposed is so large, and the results promised so immense, that it is not surprising those who would not take the trouble to investigate, have pronounced it impracticable and visionary. But in no instance have I found a man, or a body of men, who would hear and examine, that were not convinced and satisfied of its perfect feasibility and vast importance. The farmers and mechanics, from one extreme of the country to the other, understand, and are in favor of it. Therefore my views (however large they may appear to those who have never examined the subject) have been so fully and strongly sustained, that I feel they cannot justly be called "*visionary, or a humbug.*"

I have shown to the people the plain and simple way by which this great work

might be accomplished; have explained its great importance and vast results, giving us the entire control of the commerce of all the world; and it now appears that there are members of Congress who have not even read the bill. It is evident Mr. Benton has not, from his violent opposition to that which is not proposed in the bill. He objects to granting 100,000,000 acres of land to one individual. "Why he says it is monstrous."

Now the bill proposes to sell about 78,000,000 acres, good, bad, and indifferent, under specified terms and conditions, all so guarded that the government could not possibly lose one dollar.

This project has been so often explained to the public that it ought to be understood. So different is it from a grant to me of 100,000,000 acres, that I have not even asked for, or does the bill provide that I can take one acre of land, until I shall have completed ten miles of road in advance, which every one of experience must know will cost, for such a road as the bill provides, \$200,000. Then if the commissioner, the government, the people and all, are fully satisfied, I am allowed to sell 5 miles by 60 of land on the line of the road, and an equivalent somewhere else for any that may have been sold out of this 5 miles by 60, in all 192,000 acres; which, at the present value (72 cents) for soldiers' bounties, (and which must be the price of the best lands until some 16,000,000 acres are disposed of,) would amount to \$138,240, and the government holding the road as security for my continuance and faithful performance of contract, and the government also holding the other 5 miles by 60, or 192,000 acres, through which the road is completed. Now if I could not make this 192,000 acres produce enough to return the \$200,000 expended on the ten miles of road, then the work could not be continued; the government would not allow me to take one acre of land, and I should have sunken the \$200,000. But if, from the results of my energies, efforts, and labor, I raise from its present value of \$138,240 the 192,000 acres to or beyond the \$200,000 expended, then the 192,000 acres (the other half) held by the government would have imparted to it an equal increase in value from the same causes. Such would be the case for 800 miles through the good or available lands, or so far as the 5 miles by 60, or 192,000 acres, would furnish means to construct the ten miles of road, the government holding the road as security for all, and also holding one-half (alternate 5 miles by 60) of all the lands—each and every ten miles of road being completed in advance of my being allowed to take any land—the road, with the alternate settlements, imparting benefits to and enhancing the half held by the government far exceeding that taken by myself. The reserve lands would be held to furnish means for the construction of the road through the immense distance of poor land; where I should proceed as before, first build the ten miles of road, and when the 10 miles by 60, or 384,000 acres, could not be sold for enough for the outlay for the ten miles of road, then the reserve lands would be sold sufficient for, and applied to that purpose; and so on to the ocean, each and every ten miles of road would be finished in advance of receiving any lands or money. And until *all* shall have been completed and in successful operation, the government would hold the road, the surplus lands, *if any*, and all as security for the payment of ten cents per acre for all the lands; and also as security that the government should in no way be made responsible or chargeable for keeping up and in operation the said road, until its earnings could provide for that purpose—then the title to the road would vest in me, always, however, subject to the action and control of Congress in regulating and fixing the tolls, &c., and the United States mails to be transported free of charge.

The reserved and all surplus lands to be sold at auction in lots of from 40 to 160 acres.

And should all the lands fully reimburse for the outlay for constructing the road, its machinery, &c., with the sum paid to the government for the entire lands, then Congress would have power to regulate the tolls, so as not to produce any income beyond sufficient to keep said road in repairs and operation, and for necessary superintendence; making it a national, and as nearly a free road as possible, with tolls less than half what would be charged on the great and principal dividend paying roads within the States. And how Mr. Benton's objections can apply to

the bill to carry out this great project, I think would be difficult for those who read it to point out.

With the failure of this bill, I consider the hope for a communication across our continent, which would be the route for the commerce and intercourse between Europe and Asia, as forever at an end. The seal would then have been fixed. We have looked upon the promised land, but could never possess it.

The people of Oregon and California, having the same products as our own, and seeking the same markets, we could not buy from them, or they purchase from us. They could receive no benefit from a connection with us, or we from them.

We might as soon attempt to connect a part of Asia to us. I presume no man will think of an overland communication with teams through a wilderness and desert of more than two thousand miles in extent! And, on examination, it will be found that *any* communication across Panama, could never amount to any commercial or national benefit—on the contrary, such a communication, as it could never be the means of facilitating exchanges of products, would but facilitate what must be the inevitable result, the building up of a separate and independent nation.

With the failure of this bill, the only commercial benefit we could receive from them, would be in the use of their ports to repair and replenish our whale and other fishing vessels; and how long would it be before that very important branch of our commerce would be transferred to, and monopolized by the people of that coast, with whom we could not compete, when their oil and fish would be sent from Vancouver's Island directly to Europe and Asia, and these exchanged for manufactures and commodities suited to their wants? And how long would it be before sufficient capital, with enterprize for all this and more, would be furnished from Europe, with laws enacted to encourage it? The answer is, in the defeat of this bill; and the sounds of preparation and outfit will soon give us the answer from Europe.

The present condition of all Europe demands some great change, which neither the statesmen or philanthropists are prepared to point out. The population being so immense, with high prices for land, and heavy taxation upon labor, and the soil not producing enough to sustain its population, that it appears almost certain no reform within their means to accomplish can reach the evil. And the only possible remedy would seem to be in the removal of the surplus population to some country where land is very low, or without price—where there would be no tax upon labor, and where the products of the new country might be exchanged for those of Europe.

Oregon and California now opens a field for such an experiment. Many of their products might be exchanged with Europe, which could not take place with us.

Oregon and California will command and monopolize fisheries more extensive and more valuable than all the world beside—a cod fishery extending to the entire coast of Japan and China, with the markets of *all* Asia open to all the varieties they can produce, and all Europe open to them also. With such advantages, and many more, could they (when their position begins to develop itself) desire a connection with us, from which it is clear they could derive no benefit? Certainly not. And would not the people of these United States soon tire with the expense of supporting and sustaining far distant territorial governments, when the products of the territories could not be drawn to us for markets, and could not be exchanged with us? And what benefit can the people residing in any of the States derive from such territories? And would the people of these United States, with force of arms, at an immense cost, attempt to compel a country to submit, and be subject to us, from which we could receive no benefit? Therefore, with the failure of this bill, Oregon, California, and all the north Pacific coast, must be a separate, independent nation. But, could our interest be united by drawing the commerce and intercourse of Europe with Asia across our continent, dividing the vast benefits, participating in each other's local advantages and position, then a union would have been formed, which time would but strengthen and make more lasting.

The time to effect an object so vastly important passes forever with the failure of this bill. Before another year passes, the lands on the eastern terminus (the only source of means) will be applied to other purposes. Material, with advantages indispensable to the success of a work so vast, (and which do not exist at any other point on the entire route,) will have passed beyond control; and without which (and the road to transport for the immense distance where they do not exist) it would be as vain to attempt such a work as if its direction were to the moon.

The attention of the people has been awakened to this subject. It has been examined, and is understood. More than three-fourths of the people of the whole country are in favor of it. Its vast importance is becoming more and more manifest every day. It promises so much, that it will not be suffered to sleep.

A direct communication with Oregon and California, so indispensable to our future national prosperity and greatness, is being seen and understood throughout our vast country; and the impossibility of any connection, with the certainty of a separation and formation of a distinct nation, without a direct railroad communication, is also being understood and appreciated. The people will not be put off. They will force it upon Congress, but perhaps too late, when it must be undertaken as a government work, when it would be idle to ever expect its completion. Look at the Cumberland road, and all such works by the government, and even all such works by State governments!

Such a work by the government would not only control, but absorb the entire legislation of the nation; and being subject to changes of management and direction at each session of Congress, as would utterly defeat its progress. Those who are now opposing this project, are forcing upon the country the alternatives of attempting the work by the government, which could never be accomplished, or the relinquishment of Oregon and California to a separate, independent nation, soon to become our dangerous rival for the commerce of all the world, and in time to supplant and control us—an abandonment of our now "manifest destiny." And I now warn my countrymen against the danger which is inevitable from either alternative.

This is a work which can never be accomplished by individual enterprise alone, because no man would invest where he could not expect a return during his lifetime, at least, and where (from commencement to completion) the accumulation of interest would triple the cost of the road. Nor can it be accomplished by States not yet formed, and which can never be formed (without the aid of the road) through a desert incapable of sustaining population, and without navigable streams suitable to communicate with civilization and markets.

And I say, without fear of contradiction from any one entitled to an opinion formed from experience and examination, that this great work can never be accomplished on any other plan than that of connecting the sale and settlement of the lands on its line with the building of the road. Population must keep pace with the work, and be interested in it; the labor for grading the road must pay in part for the lands, and make houses for the settlers; and the one-half of the 800 miles on the eastern end must furnish means for an equal distance beyond, where the land is too poor for that purpose.

Any amount of capital, even under the strongest power of arbitrary government, (without directly connecting the settlement of the lands on its line with the work,) could not accomplish it through a wilderness and desert of such vast extent; and it would be as equally impossible from any terminus where material with necessary natural advantages do not exist, or could not be controlled.

Should the bill be passed at the early part of the coming session of Congress, the work may be carried out, though not without difficulties, much increased by the large amount of lands sold or taken up during the present year. After another season, it would be impossible. Therefore, with the failure of this bill, must end forever all hope for the accomplishment of this great work.

Most respectfully your obedient servant,

A. WHITNEY.

MERCANTILE LAW CASES.

DUNLAP'S CASES IN THE ENGLISH COURT OF CHANCERY.*

IN spite of new judiciary systems and new codes, Messrs. Banks, Gould, & Co. continue their republication of the English Chancery Reports, entire, from the conviction, apparently, and, without doubt, the correct conviction, that while these changes affect only one State, the law remaining unchanged in all the rest, and while they touch chiefly modes and forms, the great principles remaining as they were, the able decisions of the English Bench, elucidating those principles, will continue to be of high value.

The present volume (19th of the series) contains the whole of the first volume of T. J. Phillips' Reports of Decisions made by Chancellor Lyndhurst from 1841 to 1847, with a few by Lord Cottenham, the present Chancellor.

Besides numerous decisions on points of Chancery practice, this volume contains a number of interesting and valuable cases involving principles. Of these we note several of a mercantile bearing.

In *Parker vs. Marchant*, (p. 355,) the terms "ready money" in a will, were held to pass the testator's balances, standing to his credit in the bank. In support of the opposite ground, it was contended that such a balance is to be considered as a debt due from the bank. "It was once doubted whether even bank notes would pass as money," but Lord Hardwicke decided that they would.

In *Foley vs. Hill*, (p. 398,) a bill for an account was filed in 1838, stating that, in 1829, the plaintiff opened an account with a banker on an agreement that 3 per cent interest should be allowed plaintiff on balances from time to time remaining in defendant's hands. It appeared that only three such balances had been entered on defendant's books. The account had never been balanced or settled, and although balances of interest had, from time to time, become due, they had not been entered; no fraud, however, in this respect being charged against the company. There had been some correspondence on the subject, between two of the defendants, within six years. The Chancellor held that the letters written by one of the defendants to another were no such acknowledgment as to prevent the lapse of six years from barring the action; that the lapse of six years, by virtue of the Statute of Limitations, was a like bar in equity as in law; and that the statute acted of its own vigor, and in the same way in equity as at law, and not merely by analogy to the legal bar. He also held that an account of only three items was not a proper subject for a bill in equity, for an account, the relief being complete at law.

Such cases as *In re Styant* (p. 104) are valuable, and will become more so, as the practice of life insurance, in its various applications, becomes more general. In that case, a policy of insurance was deposited with a creditor as security for a claim against a firm, before any act of bankruptcy committed by the firm, and notice of the deposit of the policy was given before to the insurance company before the assignment in bankruptcy. It was held, that a *bona fide* transaction of this kind, before proceedings in bankruptcy, although after actual insolvency, is to be sustained, and that the creditor has a right to retain the security of the policy deposited.

While the profession in this country are buying reprints, entire and handsomely published, of the English Reports, and read them with attention, we notice that some of the English bar, on the other hand, are not unobservant of the course of legal affairs on this side of the Atlantic. A writer in an English law journal

* Reports of Cases argued and determined in the English Court of Chancery, with Notes and References to both English and American Decisions. By J. A. DUNLAP, Counsellor at Law. Vol. XIX. Containing Phillips' Chancery Reports, Vol. I. 1841-1847. New York: Published by Banks, Gould, & Co., Law Booksellers, No. 144 Nassau-street; and by Gould, Banks, & Gould, No. 104 State-street, Albany. 1848.

finds much to commend in the recent reforms in New York, and pays a merited tribute to the persevering and enlightened labors of David D. Field, Esq., of New York. He proposes a voyage of discovery to America, in order to ascertain what practicable and profitable changes are taking place abroad, that can be adopted at home.

Thus may it ever be. So long as we continue to learn of each other, American changes will be guided by the spirit of learning, and English learning will not become stagnant with a dull conservatism.

ACTION TO RECOVER EXCESS OF DUTIES.

In the United States Circuit Court, (New York,) September 30th, 1848. *Henry Grinnell et al. vs. Cornelius W. Lawrence.*

This is an action for money had and received to recover back an alleged excess of duties, paid to the defendant as Collector of the port of New York.

Ten hundred and fifty rolls of Canton matting were shipped from London in the ship *American Eagle*, by the plaintiff, November 15, 1847, containing forty-two thousand yards, at the cost of \$3,880; commission 2½, making a total of \$3,977; on which a duty of 25 per cent was charged, amounting to \$994 25.

The entry was made at the custom-house from the original invoice price at Canton accompanying the goods when shipped from that place to London, August 10th, 1846. This invoice accompanied the goods on the re-shipment from London to this port of New York. On the entry of the goods here, the Collector directed the appraisers to report charges upon each roll of the matting, and they reported accordingly, to be charged on each, \$1 50 for freight from Canton to London, making the additional sum of \$1,575, upon which duties were chargeable, which, at 15 per cent, amounted to \$483 50; and it being claimed that the appraised value (including the addition of charges for freight from Canton to London) exceeded by 10 per cent the value as entered at the custom-house, a duty of 20 per cent on such amended value was also charged and imposed, by way of penalty, under the 8th section of the act of 1846, which amounted to \$1,118 20.

The aggregate amount of duties, including the penalty of 20 per cent thus charged upon the Canton matting, was \$2,515 95; deducting \$143 20 on account of damage to the goods, the aggregate amount stood at \$2,382 75.

The sum of \$320 50, the duty on the charges (after correction) for freight from Canton to London, and also \$1,859, imposed by way of penalty, making the sum of \$1,038 50, was paid to the Collector under protest.

There was also shipped at the same time, and in the same vessel, a quantity of crape shawls, which were entered at a cost, including charges and commissions, of \$4,079 47, charged with a duty of 30 per cent, amounting to \$1,223 10. This article had also been shipped from Canton to London, and re-shipped by the plaintiff to this port; the charge for freight from Canton to London was added to the entry, amounting to \$102, commission, \$2 69, total \$105 03; charged with duty of 30 per cent, was \$31 50. This sum was also paid under protest; making an aggregate of \$1,429, with interest, from the time of payment, which the plaintiff claimed to recover, and for which a verdict was taken at the Circuit.

D. Lord, for plaintiff. B. F. Butler, for defendant.

NELSON, JUSTICE.—We are of opinion that the charges for freight of the goods from Canton to London were not authorized by any of the existing tariff acts, to be added, to form the dutiable value. The act of 1846 did not prescribe the mode of arriving at the dutiable value of the goods, but referred to the existing laws for that purpose. These will be found in the provisions of the act of 1842.

The 16th section of that act (5th U. S. Laws, p. 563) provides that it shall be the duty of the Collector to cause the actual market value, or wholesale price thereof at the time when purchased, in the principal markets of the country from whence the same shall have been imported into the United States, to be appraised and ascertained; and to such value or price shall be added all costs and charges, except in-

insurance, and including in every case a charge for commissions, as the true value at the port where the same may be entered, upon which the duties shall be charged.

It is clear that the costs and charges here referred to, mean those that have been incurred subsequent to the purchase of the goods, and in the course of the shipment to the United States; not to costs or charges that may have been incurred in any previous shipment to the place from whence imported into this country. These enter into and form the constituent parts that make up the market value or wholesale price at the place of importation. To add those again, would be adding double charges in fixing the valuation. The market value of goods at a given port includes all previous costs and charges of production, transportation, and delivery at that market.

Then follows the proviso to the section, that in all cases where the goods shall have been imported into the United States from a country in which the same shall have been manufactured or produced, the foreign value shall be appraised and estimated according to the current market value or wholesale price of similar articles at the principal markets of the country of production or manufacture, at the time of the importation to the United States.

This provision is to be construed with reference to, and in connection with, the enacting clause, and not as an independent provision. If according to the latter view, then my charges could be admissible, as none are provided for. But taken in connection, it is a substitute in all cases of shipments of goods from a place other than the country of production or manufacture, of the current market value of that country, instead of the market value of the place of importation. This is the legal effect of the proviso in connection with the enacting clause.

The general rule given for the appraisal, is the market value or wholesale price, at the time of the purchase, in the principal markets of the place whence goods are imported; the exception is where the goods are the production of some other country; then the current market value of that country is taken; and in each case add charges, as prescribed in the exacting clause. The cost and charges in both cases are those which have been incurred at the port of shipment.

The current market value at the principal market of the country of production was doubtless regarded by Congress as affording, upon the whole, a fairer and more uniform measure of value than the market value of the place of shipment, and therefore that measure was substituted in lieu of it, leaving the cost and charges the same in both cases.

The principle of this proviso was first incorporated into the provisions of the act of 1823. The fifth section (3 U. S. Laws, p. 739) provided, that to the actual cost of the goods, if purchased, or actual value, if otherwise procured, and to the appraised value, if appraised, shall be added all charges, except insurance; provided, that in all cases where the goods shall have been imported from a country other than that of production, the appraisers should value the same at the current value in the country where produced or manufactured.

This is a simple substitution of one measure of valuation for another, in case the goods were shipped from a country different from that of production. The cost and charges remained the same; so in respect of the act of 1828 and 1832, (4 U. S. Laws, p. 273, § 16; p. 391, § 7 and 15.)

We find, therefore, no authority for adding the freight of the goods in question from Canton to London as part of the charges in fixing the dutiable value.

We are also of opinion, that if otherwise, and the freight were properly added, the penalty of 20 per cent was not chargeable under the act.

The 8th section of the act of 1842 imposes this duty in cases where the *appraised value* of the goods imported shall exceed by 10 per cent, or more, the value as declared in the entry. The appraised value, as used in this act of 1846, and in that of 1842, and indeed in all the revenue acts, means the *value of the goods* to be estimated and ascertained by the appraisers, either according to the "actual cost," "actual value," or "market value," as the case may be, exclusive of charges. To this value, thus ascertained, charges are to be added in making up the dutiable value. Charges are not appraised, but are ascertained and added to the appraisal. This is especially so, as provided in the 16th section of the act of 1842. It directs the goods to be appraised, and to the value thus ascertained charges to be added.

The 8th section of 1846, in question, is to be read in connection with the 16th section of 1842. Independently of the charge for freight in this case, the appraised value of the Canton matting not only did not exceed the value by 10 per cent, as entered at the custom-house, but, on the contrary, it was admitted to be correct.

The case, therefore, has not arisen which justified the imposition of the 20 per cent within the 8th section of the act of 1846.

But, upon the other view taken of the case, we think the plaintiffs are entitled to recover back not only the amount of this penalty, but also the duties charged on the freight from Canton to London, and that judgment should be rendered for the amount of those two sums, with interest, from the time of payment.

GENERAL AVERAGE—FREIGHT.

In the United States District Court, July 28, 1848, sitting in Philadelphia. *Myers vs. the Brig Harriet.*

This case involves principles of great importance to the mercantile community. The *Harriet* sailed from Norfolk on the 27th of November, 1847, bound to Point a Petre, Guadaloupe. She was loaded with staves, shipped by Myers & Co. to Carron & Bonaffé, of Guadaloupe. She met with very heavy, tempestuous weather, which damaged the vessel, and rendered it impossible to continue the voyage without repairs. She therefore put into Kingston, Jamaica, where she arrived December 25th. On survey, it was found that the upper works of the vessel were considerably strained, and that they needed repairs. These were made under the orders of the captain, and in order to pay for them, he took the responsibility of selling the cargo, and returned with the vessel in ballast to the United States.

The vessel has now been libelled by the shipper and consignee for a breach of contract and of affreightment, and they ask for a decree for the value of the goods at the point of shipment, with interest from the time of sailing. The defendant does not deny a liability for the value of the cargo, but claims that the goods shall be charged with general average for the expenses from the time of the enforced deviation, and also the freight. He also contends, in the second place, that he is only liable for the nett proceeds of the cargo at Kingston.

On these points, the opinion of the Court is as follows:—

1. That general average is not allowed except when the vessel went to a port of necessity, from which its voyage was afterwards resumed.
2. That freight is not earned if the voyage is abandoned by the delict of the ship or master.
3. That the captain was not justified in making sale of the cargo at Kingston. It does not appear that he made any exertion to obtain funds by the hypothecation of the vessel, or by any maritime contract. In order to justify a sale of the cargo, the necessity must be absolute and unequivocal, or the sale is a tort. The captain sold the cargo, not only to pay the repairs, but because he had determined the voyage should be broken up. It appears that one-half of the amount brought by the cargo would have been sufficient to pay all the repairs—even if such a course were allowable. The sale was without excuse—the cargo was not perishable, and the master has no right to dispose of the property of the shipper for the sole benefit of the shipowner. The goods appear to have been disposed of solely for the benefit of the transporter. The rule is, where the sale of the cargo is allowable, that no more shall be sold than is necessary, so that the remainder may be carried to its place of destination by another vessel.
4. The rule determining the amount of damages is the value of the cargo at the place of shipment, all expenses and interest from the time of shipment. If the libellant claims more than this, or the defendant asks to be discharged less, they must clearly and unequivocally show that the goods would, at the place of destination, bring the amount claimed to be the proper value. Decree for libellants.

It is referred to the Commissioner to ascertain the amount. The defendant afterwards obtained leave to appeal to the Circuit Court.

COMMERCIAL CHRONICLE AND REVIEW.

THE MONEY MARKET—LEADING FEATURES OF THE NEW YORK BANKS—EXPORT OF AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS—COMMERCIAL REVULSIONS—CAUSES OF THE SCARCITY OF MONEY—LOANS OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT—VALUE OF PRODUCE RECEIVED AT NEW ORLEANS OF FOREIGN EXPORTS, IMPORTS OF SPECIE, THE AMOUNT OF BANK LOANS, AND SPECIE IN THE BANK VAULTS—SPECIE IN THE BANKS OF ENGLAND, FRANCE, NEW YORK, NEW ORLEANS, SOUTH CAROLINA, AND OHIO—A GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF SO MANY OF THE BANKS AS HAVE MADE RETURNS, DATED NEAR TO JANUARY 1ST, 1848—BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS FOR THREE LAST YEARS—NEW YORK BANK DIVIDENDS FOR FOUR LAST YEARS—STATE OF EXCHANGES—ILLINOIS LOAN, ETC., ETC.

THE money market has been tight during the month, and many dealers in New York and other cities have felt the pressure intensely; but latterly it has become more facile. It has resulted from the course of business during the past year, that the indebtedness of the city to the country, which was last year large, by reason of the moderate sales of manufactured goods to the interior in return for the immense quantities of produce which came down for sale and export, is this year reversed, and the city dealers have not been able to collect as largely as the necessity of meeting their own obligations required. The consequence was, a great diminution in the amount on deposit with the several banks, leaving them but little means to meet the usual demand for discount which arises from the dealers in cotton and farm produce at the beginning of a new crop year. The leading features of the New York banks have been as follows:—

BANKS OF NEW YORK.				
	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
August, 1843.....	\$58,593,081	\$14,091,779	\$14,525,843	\$24,679,230
“ 1844.....	71,623,929	10,191,974	18,091,364	28,757,112
“ 1845.....	70,179,266	8,909,527	18,464,410	27,636,520
November, 1845.....	74,780,435	8,884,545	21,375,369	31,773,961
February, 1846.....	71,897,580	8,361,383	20,926,330	29,654,401
May, 1846.....	72,591,361	8,171,624	20,816,492	30,868,377
August, 1846.....	68,652,486	8,673,309	17,885,486	28,110,553
November, 1846.....	72,301,980	8,048,384	22,268,522	30,629,196
February, 1847.....	70,087,342	9,203,242	21,166,250	31,931,770
May, 1847.....	76,688,553	11,312,171	23,809,553	35,789,954
August, 1847.....	81,385,344	11,983,124	25,098,683	36,781,080
November 1, 1847.....	80,558,529	9,107,920	26,237,256	35,096,818
“ 13, 1847.....	82,561,614	7,418,928	25,870,131	35,669,795
March, 1848.....	73,921,811	6,722,326	23,047,826	29,741,507
June, 1848.....	73,497,137	6,881,663	20,088,077	27,454,820

August 1843 was the lowest point of business in New York, as well as in the Union at large; and as the exports of produce from the whole country subsequently increased, the means of the country to pay for goods improved, and the operations of the banks increased in amount. For the fiscal year ending June, 1847, the exports of agricultural products from the United States amounted to \$129,108,317, against \$78,827,511 in 1846; and for the first two quarters of the fiscal year ending June, 1848, they were \$49,833,416, or two-thirds of the value for the whole year 1846. In the first half of the current year, the exports have been much less, while the quantity of goods sent into the interior has been at least 25 per cent greater. Money has consequently become stringent.

Commercial revulsions always arise from the fact that more has been consumed than produced. From the want of a clear understanding of this general fact, in

relation to what really constitutes money, much misapprehension prevails at times as to the causes of a money pressure, and this is particularly the case with that this year experienced in the Atlantic cities. In the usual course of trade, imported and manufactured goods are sold on credits to the West, South-west, and South. As the crop year draws to a close, and the proceeds have been realized in the several sections according to the nature of the local staple, the notes given for previous purchases of goods are liquidated. The city dealers, in realizing payment, discharge their own notes as they mature, and their deposits accumulating in bank, form a fund out of which the institutions discount southern acceptances, and enable millers and dealers to enter the produce markets. Whether money shall or shall not be abundant or otherwise, depends, therefore, upon the extent of produce sales as compared with the amount of goods sold to the interior. As a general thing, the value of imported and domestic goods sold from Boston and New York to the interior on credit, will reach \$400,000,000. Scarcely any portion of this is paid with money, but the individual paper given for it is cancelled by the credits arising from the produce and bills sent forward. The canals and avenues of trade carry down directly quantities of produce more or less considerable, according to the extent of the foreign demand. When that is large, not only is the quantity of produce brought down much greater than without it, but the prices rise, so that the money value of all the sales, both for home and foreign consumption, is enhanced. In such a state of affairs, the amounts due the cities are promptly paid, the bank deposits accumulate, and money becomes abundant. This year, the reverse has been the case. The sales of goods to the interior, as indicated in the canal returns, have been about 25 per cent more than last year in quantity; while the produce which has come down has been far less in magnitude and lower in price. A consequence has been, that the city merchants have with difficulty collected as much as would meet their obligations, and the deposits in banks have fallen to a low figure, leaving the institutions but small means with which to discount notes and acceptances arising from the usual movement of the new crop. From these broad and general circumstances it is that the scarcity of money arises; more particularly that the amount of stock of the federal government held here is larger than the capital of the country will fairly warrant. The investments of money at the eastward in railroads have been very large, drawing severely upon the capital employed in commerce. And the same feature, in a lesser degree, has affected the New York and Philadelphia markets, while from all of them in the last two years have been drawn unwonted sums for the use of the federal government. The following loans have in two years been made by the federal government:—

	Rate of interest.	Payable.	Amount.
Loan of July, 1846.....	6	1856	\$4,999,149 45
“ January, 1847.....	6	1867	12,890,372 00
“ June, 1848.....	6	1868	16,000,000 00
Treasury notes, 1846.....	6	409,860 00
“ 1847.....	6	13,128,650 00
Total in two years.....			\$47,418,031 45

This has nearly all been drawn from the active capital of the country and expended in unproductive operations, in addition to \$9,000,000 which was in the Treasury May, 1846, making an aggregate of \$56,000,000 loaned from the ordinary sources, on which various branches of industry depend for means, to unpro-

ductive purposes. By unproductive, we do not, of course, mean that the funds so invested do not yield an interest, but that they have been expended in a manner not to reproduce themselves in the form of exchangeable products of industry, which are of themselves capital, and always result from the employment of capital in industrial pursuits. It has also been the case that very considerable sums, probably \$30,000,000, have been required for investments in railroads and other fixed property, while building in all the Atlantic cities has progressed to a very considerable extent. It is a matter of just pride that our capital has proved equal to these demands without disaster; that the government has had its wants supplied without foreign aid, and that at a time when revulsions in England and revolutions in Europe have paralyzed a large additional amount of our active capital; but it is evident in the heavy prices of stocks, the embarrassments of loan holders, and the rates they pay for money, while regular dealers encounter a severe competition in the market, that the financial capacity of the country has been severely taxed. In fact it could not have gone through the crisis but for the large amount of capital received from Europe in exchange for produce, which, but for the failure of the English harvest, would not have been available. The present pressure serves to check the investments of capital, while the prospect for the coming year is that such a further accession of capital from abroad will take place, arising from renewed demands for food, as will make good existing liabilities and again leave a surplus for all wants. We may reflect what would now have been the case in regard to the supply of capital had the government not taken from the market \$56,000,000 in the last few years! If, in the next two years, the European demand for American surplus produce should equal that of the last two, we may confidently look for a permanent reduction of the rate of interest in our commercial cities. The price of money in London during the last six months has been 2 a 3½ per cent per annum, and in the United States, under the borrowing of the federal government and of corporations, it has been 6 a 7 per cent, with an occasional rise above that.

In illustration of what has been said in relation to the great influence of the internal exchanges upon the state of the money market, rather than the local movements of the institutions, we may refer to the trade of New Orleans. It will be found that the influx of produce at that point from the interior has swollen in value, as the bank facilities on which they were supposed to depend have diminished in extent. This is indicated in the following table:—

VALUE OF PRODUCE RECEIVED AT NEW ORLEANS OF FOREIGN EXPORTS, IMPORTS OF SPECIE, THE AMOUNT OF BANK LOANS, AND THE SPECIE IN THE BANK VAULTS.

	Value of produce received.	Foreign ex- ports.	Total re- ceipts and for- eign exports.	Import of specie.	Banks.		
					Loans.	Circulation.	Specie.
1840.....		\$32,998,030			\$41,711,214	\$6,443,785	\$3,163,283
1842.....	\$45,716,045	27,427,422	\$73,143,467		48,101,210	1,679,039	1,504,661
1843.....	53,728,054	26,653,924	80,381,978	\$10,407,371	31,695,439	1,248,652	5,558,857
1844.....	65,863,866	29,442,734	95,306,600	7,727,323	5,180,230	3,023,378	9,918,052
1845.....	57,199,122	25,841,311	83,040,433	2,249,138	6,180,230	2,556,891	6,162,080
1846.....	77,193,464	30,747,533	107,940,997	1,872,071	8,130,240	4,213,328	6,657,622
1847.....	90,033,256	41,788,303	131,821,559	6,680,050	8,400,699	3,709,053	7,578,510
1848.....	79,779,151	39,348,722	119,127,873	1,845,806	6,232,359	3,963,689	7,590,655

In the years prior to 1842, there were sixteen banks in New Orleans with affairs so extended that it was impossible for them to resume payments. Their loans had been made not in aid of commerce, but to facilitate speculation, which had proved disastrous. The question of resumption was much discussed, and it

was freely asserted that, if the banks called in their loans and withdrew their notes from circulation, there would be "no money." This was a bugbear, held out to frighten the advocates of specie payments. The evils of a depreciated paper money became, however, so apparent, that resumption in November, 1842, could no longer be avoided. The result was as indicated in the figures, viz, a return of paper for specie, leaving but a small amount of bank notes in the hands of the public, and but little specie in the vaults. It appeared, however, that ten banks were unable to continue their payments, while six have done so, observing a restricted movement up to the present time. Now it will be observed, that the receipts of produce at New Orleans, and the value of that portion exported abroad in 1848, together are nearly double the amount for 1842; yet the loans of the banks are this year equal to only one-eighth of the amount due them in 1842, and the amount of specie they hold is more than double that of the bills outstanding. Now we are further to take into consideration the fact that the business of New Orleans flows in from many States, all of which had large "bank accommodation" during the general suspension; as, for instance, Louisiana, Missouri, Mississippi, and Arkansas, together had bank loans amounting to \$111,467,641, and the active loans in all those States together now reach \$8,493,710 only; yet we have seen above that the value of their products arriving at New Orleans has doubled, while the specie lying in the bank vaults has swollen to the sum of the loans. In these facts we have the clearest evidence of the unimportance of bank credits to commercial prosperity. It may be stated, as explanatory of the above table, that the foreign exports, or portions of produce sent to foreign countries, are the same produce that is received by the river, but it passes into other hands and becomes the basis of distinct business operations, and, moreover, does not include the exports from New Orleans to other States; as, for instance, the exports from New Orleans for the year ending with June, amounted to \$67,182,323, of which \$39,348,722, as above, was to foreign countries, and \$27,833,601 coastwise. In relation to the bank loans, it is to be remarked that the figures indicate only the regular business notes. The same institutions have loaned near \$17,084,516 on mortgages, stocks, real estate, &c., being of the nature of loan office operations rather than of commercial banking.

The specie feature indicated in the New Orleans banks are also common to all commercial institutions, as seen in the following table:—

SPECIE IN CERTAIN BANKS.

	England.	France.	N. York.	N. Orleans.	S. Car.	Ohio.	Total.
January, 1842.....	\$26,010,000	\$11,230,000	\$4,074,601	\$1,741,526	\$857,649	\$1,018,611	\$74,931,787
" 1843.....	54,665,000	43,182,000	6,174,317	4,586,737	817,131	524,096	126,405,820
" 1844.....	81,610,000	52,500,230	11,206,542	9,918,052	973,318	774,689	156,976,056
" 1845.....	70,920,000	48,965,049	6,893,236	8,138,987	901,173	819,100	136,673,545
" 1846.....	65,172,200	47,250,100	8,361,380	6,558,974	830,760	1,374,593	129,548,010
" 1847.....	72,130,240	14,913,965	9,191,254	6,545,316	643,841	2,026,551	105,251,167
October, 1847.....	43,900,416	17,733,810	7,418,928	6,192,276	860,475	2,604,446	78,710,951
April, 1848.....	70,851,912	16,643,536	6,722,326	8,235,274	571,502	2,590,130	105,614,680
June, 1848.....	65,371,820	26,482,734	6,751,338	7,590,655	388,111	2,681,474	119,236,132

We have in this result the most extraordinary fluctuations. The largest amount of specie ever held by the banks was in that year of general prosperity, 1844. The amount of specie then in the institutions being large, a less quantity was, of course, in circulation. In October, 1847, however, after the disastrous failures and loss of confidence in England, specie became more in demand for general use to supply the want of that paper become discredited, and by which inter-

change of products is usually effected. The transfer of private credits accompanying the movement of produce is that which constitutes the great money movement of the country, and it governs, but does not flow from corporate operations. The leading features of the banks of the United States, as prepared at Washington, have been as follows:—

A GENERAL STATEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF SO MANY OF THE BANKS AS HAVE MADE RETURNS,
DATED NEAR TO JANUARY 1, 1848.

State.	Date.	1847	No. of B'ks.	No. of Bran.	Capital.	Loans and discounts.	Due by other Banks.
Maine.....	October,	1847	32	...	\$2,834,000	\$5,150,208	\$1,263,358
N. Hampshire.	December,	1847	20	...	1,985,900	3,721,803	434,829
Vermont.....	August,	1847	18	...	1,287,442	2,908,567	867,523
Massachusetts.	September,	1847	109	...	32,113,150	57,260,938	5,571,240
Rhode Island..	"	1847	62	...	10,962,654	14,987,333	571,980
Connecticut....	April,	1847	32	2	8,605,742	12,781,857	1,250,410
New York.....	November,	1847	163	2	43,559,518	85,380,430	12,120,649
New Jersey....	January,	1848	24	...	3,309,261	6,292,288	1,011,913
Pennsylvania..	November,	1847	47	1	16,192,258	33,870,857	3,904,847
Delaware.....	January,	1848	2	...	210,000	561,081	95,164
Maryland.....	"	1848	20	2	8,541,830	13,291,129	764,506
Virginia.....	"	1848	6	29	9,684,970	17,302,883	1,563,328
North Carolina	April,	1848	4	11	3,402,400	6,307,989	329,406
South Carolina	January,	1848	7	2	9,153,582	14,620,575	942,274
Georgia.....	October,	1847	11	11	11,121,802	6,758,158	885,261
Alabama.....	January,	1848	1	...	1,500,000	2,379,026	953,691
Louisiana.....	December,	1847	6	22	15,575,970	21,587,332
Tennessee.....	October,	1847	4	17	8,243,299	9,714,559	724,097
Kentucky.....	January,	1848	3	13	7,071,000	10,779,675	1,826,609
Missouri.....	"	1848	1	5	1,204,716	2,698,086	20,519
Indiana.....	November,	1847	1	12	2,082,874	3,498,912	1,081,194
Ohio.....	February,	1848	48	...	6,056,357	12,452,665	2,656,222
Michigan.....	January,	1848	1	...	139,450	170,231	65,505
Total.....	January,	1848	622	129	204,838,175	344,476,582	38,904,525
"	"	1847	591	124	203,070,622	310,282,945	31,788,641
"	"	1846	587	120	196,894,309	312,114,404	31,689,946
"	"	1845	580	127	206,045,969	288,617,131	29,619,272
"	"	1844	578	118	210,872,056	264,905,814	35,860,930
"	"	1843	577	114	228,861,948	254,544,937	20,666,264
"	"	1842	563	129	260,171,197	323,957,569	30,752,496
"	"	1841	619	165	313,608,959	386,487,662	47,877,045
"	"	1837	632	154	290,772,091	525,115,702	59,663,910

CONDITION OF SO MANY OF THE BANKS AS HAVE MADE RETURNS—CONTINUED.

State.	Date.	1847	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Due other bks.
Maine.....	October,	1847	\$472,776	\$2,545,011	\$1,647,811	\$60,937
N. Hampshire.	December,	1847	155,300	1,746,165	590,535
Vermont.....	August,	1847	105,684	2,353,651	394,560	977
Massachusetts.	September,	1847	3,943,973	17,196,362	10,265,555	7,263,202
Rhode Island..	"	1847	325,237	2,842,464	1,298,617	854,065
Connecticut....	April,	1847	462,165	4,437,631	1,782,921	245,816
New York.....	November,	1847	7,418,928	25,870,131	38,645,490	18,237,010
New Jersey....	January,	1848	636,387	2,722,541	1,718,847	212,437
Pennsylvania..	November,	1847	4,638,073	14,336,196	15,110,433	4,301,091
Delaware.....	January,	1848	74,410	283,961	148,793	22,020
Maryland.....	"	1848	2,244,884	3,106,901	4,211,278	1,667,249
Virginia.....	"	1848	2,888,718	8,997,598	3,958,988	365,035
North Carolina	April,	1848	1,596,269	3,512,448	717,798	47,659
South Carolina	January,	1848	837,767	3,981,683	2,278,568	1,845,632
Georgia.....	October,	1847	1,523,746	3,400,667	1,234,489	292,228
Alabama.....	January,	1848	1,108,608	2,133,210	654,342
Louisiana.....	December,	1847	7,578,710	3,709,053	8,654,422	1,289,142
Tennessee.....	October,	1847	1,312,770	3,996,764	1,300,060	374,385

Kentucky.....	January, 1848	2,920,151	6,484,814	1,983,513	1,304,233
Missouri.....	" 1848	2,314,718	2,404,160	1,364,650	138,073
Indiana.....	November, 1847	1,083,979	3,606,452	653,445	34,545
Ohio.....	February, 1848	2,664,547	8,647,327	4,545,081	858,307
Michigan.....	January, 1848	61,965	220,901	65,981	228
Total.....	January, 1848	46,369,765	128,506,091	103,226,177	39,414,371
"	" 1847	35,132,516	105,519,766	91,792,533	28,539,888
"	" 1846	42,012,095	105,552,427	96,913,070	28,218,568
"	" 1845	44,241,242	89,608,711	88,020,646	26,337,440
"	" 1844	49,898,269	75,167,646	84,550,785	31,998,024
"	" 1843	33,515,806	58,563,608	56,168,623	21,456,523
"	" 1842	28,440,423	83,734,011	62,408,870	25,863,827
"	" 1841	34,813,958	107,290,214	64,890,101	42,861,889
"	" 1837	37,915,340	149,185,890	127,397,185	62,421,118

The increase in loans and discounts has, for the whole Union, been 10 per cent, and they are now 50 per cent higher than in 1843, following the large movement of produce, which has annually increased in magnitude. It will be observed, that although the loans have increased \$100,000,000 since 1843, the capital of the banks has diminished \$24,000,000; hence, that the increased means of lending has been derived from deposits and circulation, or funds which the banks have borrowed of the public without interest to lend at a high rate to others. With \$24,000,000 less capital, the institutions hold \$13,000,000 more specie; that is to say, when they held 15 per cent of the capital in specie, they now hold 23 per cent in specie. Since January, 1843, the means of all the banks to lend have much diminished, as indicated in the table of New York banks given above, and the rate of interest has advanced under the demands of the interests alluded to. This advance in interests has promoted the profits of the banks in all the cities. The following is a table of the semi-annual return, brought forward from our number for November, 1847, for the Boston banks, where capital has probably been more in request, through railroad influences, than in New York or Philadelphia:—

BOSTON BANK DIVIDENDS.

BANKS.	1846.				1847.				1848.			
	Capital.	p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.	Am't.	p.ct.
Atlas.....	\$500,000	3	\$15,000	3	\$15,000	3	\$15,000	3	\$17,500	3	\$15,000	3
Atlantic.....	500,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	17,500	3	17,500	3
Boston.....	900,000	3	21,000	3	21,000	3	21,000	3	31,500	4	36,000	4
Boylston.....	150,000	..	5	7,500	4	6,000	4	6,000	4	6,000	4	6,750
City.....	1,000,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	3	35,000	3
Columbian.....	500,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	4
Eagle.....	500,000	3	17,500	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	17,500	3	17,500	3
Exchange.....	500,000	22,500	4	20,000	..
Freeman's.....	200,000	4	8,000	4	8,000	4	8,000	4	8,000	4	9,000	..
Globe.....	1,000,000	3	30,000	3	35,000	3	35,000	3	35,000	3	35,000	4
Granite.....	500,000	3	17,500	3	17,500	3	15,000	3	17,500	3	17,500	3
Hamilton.....	500,000	3	17,500	3	17,500	3	17,500	3	17,500	3	17,500	3
Market.....	500,000	4	25,200	4	25,200	4	25,200	5	28,000	5	28,000	5
Massachusetts.....	800,000	3	24,000	3	24,000	3	24,000	3	24,000	3	24,000	3
Mechanics'.....	120,000	4	4,800	4	4,800	4	4,800	4	4,800	4	4,800	..
Merchants'.....	3,000,000	3	105,000	3	105,000	3	105,000	3	105,500	4	120,000	4
New England.....	1,000,000	3	30,000	3	30,000	4	40,000	4	40,000	4	40,000	4
North.....	750,000	3	22,500	3	22,500	3	22,500	3	22,500	3	22,500	3
Shawmut.....	500,000	3	17,500	3	15,000	3	15,000	4	20,000	3	17,500	4
Shoe & Leather Deal..	500,000	3	17,500	4	20,000	4	20,000	4	20,000	4	22,500	4
State.....	1,800,000	3	54,000	3	54,000	3	54,000	3	54,000	3	54,000	3
Suffolk.....	1,000,000	4	40,000	4	40,000	5	50,000	5	50,000	5	50,000	5
Traders'.....	400,000	3	12,000	3	12,000	3	12,000	3	14,000	3	17,500	4
Tremont.....	500,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	17,500	3	14,000	3
Union.....	800,000	3	24,000	3	24,000	3	28,000	3	28,000	3	28,000	3
Washington.....	500,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	15,000	3	17,500	3	17,500	3
Total.....	18,980,000		593,000		603,000		620,000		658,300		702,800	

* Eight months.

The Boylston Bank went into operation in December, 1845, and the Exchange Bank last year, making \$650,000 of new bank capital. The progress of capital and dividends has been as follows:—

Years.	APRIL.		OCTOBER.		Div. for year.
	Capital.	Dividends.	Capital.	Dividends.	
1843.....	\$17,010,000	\$417,000	\$17,010,000	\$417,000	\$834,000
1844.....	17,480,000	426,300	17,480,000	480,800	907,100
1845.....	17,480,000	550,250	17,480,000	561,850	1,112,100
1846.....	18,180,000	593,000	18,180,000	603,000	1,196,000
1847.....	18,180,000	623,000	18,980,000	658,300	1,281,300
1848.....	18,920,000	702,800	18,980,000	725,550	1,428,350

The capital has increased in this period \$1,870,000, and the dividends \$594,350. That is to say, \$17,010,000 of bank capital paid, in 1843, 4.9 per cent average interest; and \$18,480,000, which was the working capital of 1847, the Exchange Bank not having been long in operation, paid 6.8 per cent, being an increase of 2 per cent on the capital, or 50 per cent in the nett profits of 1847 over 1843, in capital invested in banking in Boston. In 1848, the working capital has been \$18,980,000, and the dividends \$1,428,350, an average rate of 7.52 per cent, and an increase of 50 per cent in the profits of capital so employed since 1843. The New York banks, as far as their second dividends for 1847 have been declared, show similar results, as follows:—

NEW YORK BANK DIVIDENDS.

BANKS.	1845.			1846.			1847.			1848.		
	Capital.	1st.	2d.	Amount.	1st.	2d.	Amount.	1st.	2d.	Amount.	1st.	2d.
Butchers & Drovers'	\$500,000	3½	4	\$37,500	4	5	\$45,000	5	5	\$50,000	5	5
Leather Manufac....	600,000	3½	3½	42,080	3½	3½	42,000	3½	3½	42,000	2½	3½
Tradesmen's.....	400,000	5	5	40,000	5	5	40,000	5	10	60,000	5	5
Merchants' Exch....	750,000	3½	3½	52,500	3½	4	56,250	4	4	60,000	4	4
Seventh Ward.....	500,000	3½	3½	35,000	3½	3½	35,000	3½	3½	35,000	3½	4
North River.....	655,000	3½	3½	45,850	3½	3½	45,850	3½	4	45,125	4	4
Bank of America...	2,001,300	3	3	120,073	3	3½	130,072	3½	3½	140,084	3½	3½
Phoenix.....	1,200,000	3	3	72,000	3	3	72,000	3	3	72,000	3	3
Bank of Commerce.	3,447,500	3	3	206,850	3	3	206,850	3½	3½	240,082	3½	3½
National.....	750,000	3½	3½	48,750	3½	3½	48,750	3½	4	55,750	4	4
Mechanics'.....	1,440,000	3½	3½	103,800	4	4	115,200	4	4	115,200	4	9
Total.....	\$12,243,700			\$801,322			\$836,072			\$902,028		
										\$980,266		

The Mechanics' Bank declared an extra dividend of 5 per cent from its surplus, which cannot therefore be considered as its earnings for the six months. It appears, however, that the aggregate earnings of all these banks for the year have averaged 8 per cent this year against 6½ in 1845.

In our November number, last year, we remarked as follows in allusion to the state of the currency, as evinced in the above table of banks for the whole Union:—

The present expansion of the currency, in all sections of the country, is the legitimate effect of the long period of favorable exchanges, and has reached a point which, in another year, may promote unfavorable exchanges, and produce a revulsion—the more so, that the affairs of Europe remain in so unpromising a position.

The unfavorable state of exchanges has resulted from the enhanced consumption of goods, while bank credits have aided at a time when the exports have diminished in volume and value. Revulsion has not, however, resulted. The pressure has induced greater caution in regard to sales on the part of the leading merchants; and with the renewal of the foreign demand for domestic produce, which this year is likely to be large, the pressure will have been removed; the more so, that a portion of the government loan which had been held here has been put off upon the

London market through the operations of an eminent Washington banker. Of the last loan of the federal government, probably \$6,000,000 has found its way abroad. There have been voluntary purchases from most of the countries of Europe to the extent of \$2,000,000, exclusive of the sums sent to England; and as the political horizon continues threatening, the probability is that larger sums will be sought after, while the whole tendency of affairs here is to extinguish debt. During the past month the federal government discharged some \$1,000,000 to the holders of the Mexican indemnity, and the revenues are so far in excess of the expenditures as to indicate a speedy discharge of considerable amounts, at least of the \$13,000,000 Treasury notes outstanding, and payable at the end of the year. The State of Illinois has also commenced paying, from the proceeds of its land sales, a portion of the \$1,600,000 loan borrowed by the commissioners, Messrs. Oakley and Ryan, to complete the Illinois and Michigan Canal. It is also in contemplation to introduce into the Illinois legislature a bill authorizing banking on the State stock, an operation which may absorb a considerable quantity of the stock of that State.

COMMERCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMERCE OF HONOLULU, OAHU, IN 1847.

WE published in July, 1847, an interesting paper relating to the Commerce and Government of the Hawaiian Kingdom, prepared expressly for the Merchants' Magazine, by JAMES JACKSON JARVIS, Esq., late editor of the "Polynesian," the government organ at Honolulu, and in earlier volumes still more complete and elaborate accounts of that interesting kingdom, from the same authentic source. With the exception of its monarchical feature, the Hawaiian kingdom seems to pattern its social and commercial institutions after our own, and with a degree of success that must prove highly gratifying to every friend of political liberty and industrial progress.

Having received from our attentive correspondent at Honolulu, a file of the Polynesian, we are enabled to furnish late official statements of the commerce of Honolulu, &c., which we present in as condensed a form as the data will admit. It appears that, in 1843, the imports into Honolulu amounted to \$223,383, yielding a revenue to the government of \$8,468. In 1847 they had swelled to \$710,138, and the revenue thereupon to \$48,801, being an increase of imports of \$486,855, and of revenue \$40,332 in four years. The editor of the Polynesian thinks it worth while to inquire into the causes of so flattering a result, and consider the prospect for the future. He says.—

"The chief cause of this rapid increase of imports has been the temporary market created by the influx of whaleships. In 1843 there arrived 318; in 1844, 467; in 1845, 540; in 1846, 595; in 1847, 384, a decrease which brings the number down almost to that of 1843, the birth period of the present ship chandlery business, which has had so favorable an influence upon the prosperity of the group. The whalers having created, in most part, this import trade, and also having in chief made the market for the native produce, it follows that if they decline in numbers the imports must proportionately decrease, and with it the revenue. We will allow that from other causes the actual consumption by the aborigines of foreign goods is double what it was in 1843, and that the aggregate value of sugar and coffee raised is in the same proportion. Yet even with this healthful and permanent increase, the decline of imports and revenue from the falling off from 595 whaleships to 384 in one year must soon show itself, unless a new business is created to fill the gap."

We give below a statement of the imports and exports of Honolulu, as made up by

William Patz, Esq., the Collector General of Customs at that port, for the year ending December 31, 1847. It will be seen that the United States stands first in the import trade, and we have no doubt but that our trade with that island might be considerably extended.

VALUE OF IMPORTS INTO HONOLULU FROM THE FOLLOWING COUNTRIES IN 1847.

United States.....	\$275,076 00	Bremen.....	\$1,680 99
England.....	159,211 06	Mexico.....	593 00
China.....	98,755 55	France.....	585 37
Oregon.....	54,784 99	Sydney.....	280 00
Valparaiso.....	53,154 42	Central America.....	46 00
California.....	18,662 81	Oil, bone, &c.*.....	24,778 76
Manilla.....	8,954 03		
Tahiti.....	8,623 54	Total.....	\$710,138 52
Sitka.....	4,952 00		

The following table shows the character, quantity, and value of native produce exported from Honolulu in merchant vessels:—

EXPORTS FROM HONOLULU FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31, 1847.

	Quantities.	Value.		Quantities.	Value.
Sugar.....lbs.	594,816	\$29,740 80	Goat skins.....	20,360	\$4,072 00
Molasses.....galls.	17,928	4,482 00	Mustard seed.....		500 00
Salt.....bbls.	15,549	15,549 00	Horns.....	1,680	50 40
Coffee.....lbs.	26,243	3,936 45	Koa lumber.....feet	1,150	69 00
Tallow.....	17,236	1,034 16	Coral stone.....	300	75 00
Pulu.....	14,327	573 08	Potatoes.....bbls.	545	1,090 00
Arrow-root.....	6,411	256 44	Brooms.....	690	86 25
Hides.....	3,452	6,904 00			
Total value.....					\$68,418 58
Foreign goods claiming drawback.....					55,208 07
Foreign goods exported not claiming drawback, by estimate.....					230,846 17
Supplies—72 merchant vessels at \$700.....					50,400 00
4 men-of war, at \$3,000.....					12,000 00
123 whalers, (inside,) at \$600.....					73,800 00
44 whalers, (outside,) at \$100.....					4,400 00
Total.....					\$495,072 82

STATEMENT OF IMPORTS, EXPORTS, RECEIPTS, ETC., AT THE CUSTOM-HOUSE, PORT OF HONOLULU, ISLAND OF OAHU, H. I., FOR THE YEARS 1843-4-5-6-7.

Years.	Gross value of imports.	Re-exported.	Nett consumption.	Transit duties.	Harbor dues.	Total nett receipts.
1843...	\$223,383 38	\$66,618 17	\$156,565 21	\$239 31	\$2,958 33	\$8,468 38
1844 ..	350,357 12	60,054 06	289,969 77	411 60	4,881 33	14,263 56
1845...	546,941 72	67,010 93	471,319 78	734 01	4,890 83	25,189 96
1846...	598,382 24	62,325 74	536,056 50	20 56	4,705 32	36,506 64
1847...	710,138 52	55,208 07	653,930 45	184 93	4,095 24	48,801 25

ARRIVALS OF MERCHANTMEN AT THE PORT OF HONOLULU DURING THE YEAR 1847.

Nation.	Ships.	Barks.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Total.
United States.....	8	5	3	5	21
England.....	.	8	9	3	20
French.....	.	.	1	5	6
Hawaiian from foreign voyages.....	.	2	1	5	8
Chilean.....	1	1	4	2	8
Russian.....	.	2	.	.	2
Peruvian.....	.	1	1	.	2
Total.....	9	19	19	20	67

The total number of whalers arrived at Honolulu in 1847 was 167, of which 136 belonged to the United States, 10 to France, 1 to England, &c.

* Landed from whaleships, and wreck of Philip Tabb.

TOTAL WHALERS AT THE PORTS OF HONOLULU AND LAHAINA.

Years.	U. States.	England.	France.	Bremen.	Hamburgh.	Prussia.	Others.	Total.
1847.....	359	3	22	19	2	1	.	405
1846.....	537	9	28	11	6	2	3	596

The number and tonnage of vessels at Honolulu during the year 1847, amounted to 72 merchantmen, with a tonnage of 16,185, and 123 whalers, with a tonnage of 37,011. The total imports at Lahaina and Honolulu amounted to \$738,150.

The mercantile marine belonging to Hawaiian islands January 1st, 1848, consisted of one bark, two brigs, sixty-one schooners, and three sloops—sixty-seven vessels of about 2,160 tons, estimated value \$110,000. The increase over 1847 was 19 vessels.

VIRGINIA TOBACCO STATISTICS.

A correspondent, residing at Richmond, Virginia, has compiled from authentic sources the following table, which, we assure him, is a most "acceptable contribution to the Merchants' Magazine." It shows the quantity, in hogsheads, inspected, the stock on hand, and the exports, foreign and domestic, in each year from 1843 to 1848, the years ending on the 30th of September.

YEAR ENDING SEPTEMBER 30.

	1843. Hhds.	1844. Hhds.	1845. Hhds.	1846. Hhds.	1847. Hhds.	1848. Hhds.
Inspected.....	56,788	45,885	51,126	42,680	51,726	36,725
Stock, 30th Sept....	13,420	14,362	21,873	19,060	15,363	13,959
Export to—						
London.....	4,941	1,336	1,187	3,126	1,572	2,145
Liverpool.....	4,265	5,367	4,707	6,615	3,328	4,622
Bristol and Glasgow	1,036	351	664	1,205	553	1,434
Cowes (or orders)...	5,459	1,075	750
France.....	4,533	605	4,543	1,623	5,333	728
Belgium.....	5,441	1,800	1,018	1,698	774	1,501
Bremen.....	3,013	5,155	1,281	1,056	844	895
Holland.....	6,338	3,818	1,842	2,092	627	236
Italy.....	452	564	2,048	2,388	2,992	905
Gibraltar.....	100	368	522	695
Hamburgh.....	397	435
Other ports.....	50	26	23	36	15	24
Total.....	35,528	20,594	17,752	20,957	16,560	13,175

Years.	Inspections. 3 years.	Foreign export. 3 years.	Manuf'd. Coastwise. 3 years.
1834.....	36,369	25,644	
1835.....	47,520	25,871	
1836.....	45,445	29,722	
		129,334	81,237
1837.....	36,201	18,991	
1838.....	44,845	20,828	
1839.....	28,502	18,729	
		109,548	58,548
1840.....	58,186	27,195	
1841.....	56,141	34,442	
1842.....	52,156	32,795	
		166,483	94,442
1843.....	56,788	35,528	
1844.....	45,886	20,594	
1845.....	51,126	17,752	
		153,800	73,784
1846.....	42,679	20,957	
1847.....	51,726	16,560	
1848.....	36,725	13,175	
		131,130	50,692
			80,448

The stocks on hand in 1833 and 1848 were nearly the same.

Some shipments are made to Europe via Baltimore and New York, which do not appear in the inspection returns of those cities, being merely transferred from one vessel to another.

In addition to the quantity inspected there is a good deal brought to market in a loose state, and sold to the manufacturers—equal, probably, to 4,000 or 5,000 hogsheads.

The principal coastwise export is to New York, which was unusually large in 1847, being 3,350 hogsheads, exclusive of transshipments.

The exports from Norfolk to the West Indies are not included above.

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURE.

It is instructive and interesting to watch the progress of trade, its increase and decrease, and the causes which operate upon its distribution, creating changes in the intercourse between countries, which convey lessons of wisdom to those who will read them aright. In returns lately made by Parliament we have instructive evidence of the kind laid before us, and from which we select the following table of exports of British produce and manufactures for the years 1845, 1846, and 1847:—

	1847.	1846.	1845.
British West Indies.....	£2,273,041	£2,505,695	£2,789,211
East Indies and Ceylon.....	5,470,105	6,424,456	6,703,778
China.....	1,503,969	1,791,439	2,394,827
Mauritius.....	223,563	310,231	345,059
British North American Colonies.....	3,231,480	3,308,059	3,550,614
New South Wales and Australian Colonies..	1,644,170	1,441,640	1,201,076
United States.....	10,974,161	6,830,460	7,147,663
Cuba.....	896,540	844,112	695,379
Brazil.....	2,568,804	2,749,338	2,493,306
Mexico and Central South America.....	2,486,551	2,816,123	3,485,880

To those advocates of the restrictive system who will persist that the foreigner will take nothing in return for his corn but specie, the truth may be conveyed to their minds if they will take the trouble to study the fact now before them, in our exports to the United States, by which it will be seen that our transatlantic brethren have purchased the increased amount of *four millions sterling* of our manufactures in return for the large quantity of breadstuffs which we have bought from them to make up the deficiencies of our harvest in 1846. Causes equally natural are seen to affect the other portions of our foreign trade—thus the distress in the East and West Indies, China, and Mauritius, and the great depreciations in the value of property and the produce of those countries, disable them from buying so freely from us; and the wars in Mexico and Central America, with their destruction of credit and confidence, have a similar effect, and fully account for the falling off which is here exhibited.—*Wilmer and Smith's Times.*

INSPECTIONS OF FLOUR AT RICHMOND, VA., FROM 1819 TO 1848.

We are indebted to an intelligent correspondent, residing in Richmond, (Va.) for the subjoined statement of the quantity of flour inspected at that place for each of the last thirty years:—

Years.	Barrels.	Years.	Barrels.	Years.	Barrels.
1819.....	159,500	1829.....	177,800	1839.....	239,200
1820.....	152,900	1830.....	233,500	1840.....	239,900
1821.....	137,300	1831.....	242,900	1841.....	162,900
1822.....	102,400	1832.....	176,700	1842.....	134,200
1823.....	111,500	1833.....	244,000	1843.....	184,700
1824.....	120,300	1834.....	156,800	1844.....	187,000
1825.....	173,200	1835.....	230,500	1845.....	182,500
1826.....	112,400	1836.....	177,700	1846.....	289,500
1827.....	94,200	1837.....	111,700	1847.....	159,500
1828.....	130,500	1838.....	155,000	1848.....	180,100

Richmond also receives the flour inspected at Lynchburgh and Scottsville, (on James River,) and the quantities inspected there are about one-fifth of that inspected at Richmond; so that 20 per cent may be added to the above to show the actual flour trade of Richmond.

PRICES OF FLOUR IN NEW YORK

ON THE FIRST WEDNESDAY IN EACH MONTH FOR THE LAST TWENTY-FIVE YEARS.

The following table gives the price of good Western and State brands of flour in New York on the first Wednesday in each month for a series of years:—

Years.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.
1824.....	\$6 26	\$6 00	\$6 12½	\$6 25	\$6 50	\$6 25
1825.....	5 25	5 37½	5 25	5 25	5 12½	5 12½
1826.....	5 25	5 12½	5 25	5 87½	4 62½	4 87½
1827.....	5 12½	6 00	5 50	5 75	5 12½	4 75
1828.....	5 25	5 12½	5 00	4 75	4 62½	4 56½
1829.....	8 37½	8 50	8 12½	7 25	6 25	6 75
1830.....	5 12½	4 75	4 62½	4 75	4 86½	4 87½
1831.....	5 75	6 12½	6 75	6 87½	6 00	6 50
1832.....	6 37½	6 50	5 63½	5 12½	5 37½	5 62½
1833.....	6 00	5 75	5 50	5 75	5 62½	5 75
1834.....	5 50	5 37½	5 12½	4 87½	4 75	4 81½
1835.....	5 12½	5 25	5 50	5 62½	5 75	6 12½
1836.....	7 25	7 50	7 37½	7 50	6 75	7 12½
1837.....	10 12½	11 00	11 25	10 75	9 00	9 50
1838.....	8 75	8 25	8 00	8 25	7 50	7 75
1839.....	8 87½	8 93½	9 00	8 50	7 75	6 87½
1840.....	5 87½	6 37½	5 75	5 62½	5 12½	4 75
1841.....	4 93½	4 87½	4 75	4 93½	4 81½	5 00
1842.....	5 87½	6 43½	6 12½	6 25	5 87½	6 12½
1843.....	4 56½	4 37½	5 75	4 62½	5 00	5 12½
1844.....	4 62½	4 81½	4 93½	4 90½	4 62½	4 62½
1845.....	4 68½	4 84½	4 81½	4 75	4 62½	4 50
1846.....	5 75	5 62½	5 50	5 43½	5 68½	4 34½
1847.....	6 50	6 87½	7 12	7 68½	7 25	9 50
1848.....	6 00	6 00	6 25	6 50	6 12½	5 50
Years.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1824.....	\$5 87½	\$5 50	\$5 25	\$5 62½	\$5 62½	\$5 87½
1825.....	5 35	5 50	5 12	5 25	5 12½	5 12½
1826.....	4 75	4 50	4 62	4 87½	5 12½	5 12½
1827.....	4 50	4 62½	4 68	4 75	5 25	5 62½
1828.....	4 62½	5 00	5 75	6 25	7 02½	7 37½
1829.....	5 87½	5 37½	5 50	5 75	5 31½	5 37½
1830.....	4 87½	5 00	5 62	5 37½	5 25	5 18½
1831.....	5 37½	5 12½	5 25	5 62	5 75	6 00
1832.....	5 75	6 00	5 87	5 87½	6 00	6 37½
1833.....	5 87½	5 62½	5 75	5 50	5 68½	5 62½
1834.....	4 87½	5 90	5 25	5 25	5 12½	4 87½
1835.....	6 62½	6 50	5 75	5 93½	6 25	7 50
1836.....	7 12½	7 00	7 75	8 50	9 50	10 00
1837.....	9 75	9 50	9 62	8 25	8 50	9 00
1838.....	7 25	7 12½	7 62½	8 62½	8 50	8 62½
1839.....	6 31½	6 50	6 75	6 12½	6 87½	6 25
1840.....	4 62½	5 00	5 00	4 87½	5 00	5 62½
1841.....	4 37½	5 87½	6 50	6 25	6 09	6 37½
1842.....	5 93½	5 81½	4 93	4 50	4 25	4 87½
1843.....	5 62½	5 00	3 81	4 56½	4 75	4 62½
1844.....	4 31½	4 31½	4 18	4 37½	4 87½	4 68½
1845.....	4 62½	4 31½	4 75	4 87½	6 25	6 87½
1846.....	4 12½	4 18½	4 18	5 62½	6 00	5 51½
1847.....	6 50	5 62½	5 75	5 75½	6 56	6 18
1848.....	5 18	5 00	6 00

TRADE BETWEEN FRANCE AND GREAT BRITAIN.

The total official value of exports from Great Britain to France in 1845 was £5,035,296; in 1846, £5,127,073; and in 1847, £4,371,253. The official value of the exports from France to England was, in 1845, £4,097,050; in 1846, £1,745,645; and in 1847, £4,792,663.

COALS, CINDERS, AND CULM EXPORTED FROM ENGLAND.

A return has just been prepared, by order of the House of Commons, of the total quantities of coal, cinders, and culm exported from the United Kingdom to all parts of the world, in each year, from 1840 to 1847, both inclusive—distinguishing the quantities exported to the countries named below respectively, from those exported to all other parts. The total for the years 1840 and 1841 were respectively 1,606,313 tons and 1,848,294 tons; the details of the remaining years are as follows:—

Whence exported.	1842.	1843.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.
Cuba.....tons	35,653	15,221	14,844	13,218	17,358	19,049
Chili.....	1,877	1,840	8,219	15,149	8,664	9,680
Pera.....	340	301	2,277	5,108	3,067	4,320
Colombia.....	50	900	272	216	320	108
United States.....	60,836	33,948	29,822	58,381	45,536	46,188
France.....	515,975	462,941	412,902	647,967	670,035	641,010
Spain and Canaries.	53,548	64,009	74,836	101,336	104,286	97,509
Norway.....	18,800	18,951	22,138	33,036	31,439	32,753
Sweden.....	37,995	25,961	25,661	34,664	31,085	26,589
Russia.....	83,582	116,041	94,144	150,422	138,485	108,378
All other parts.....	1,190,848	1,126,098	1,069,056	1,471,785	1,480,833	1,497,577
Total.....	1,999,504	1,866,211	1,754,171	2,531,282	2,531,108	2,483,161

The official returns of exports, says the Gateshead Observer, furnish, we are happy to perceive, satisfactory evidence as to the improvement of our export trade in coal—the declared value of that article having increased during the three months ending April 5th, 1848, to the extent of fully forty per cent as compared with the corresponding period of 1847. A period of three months, however, is perhaps too small on which to found any sound calculations as to the state of trade; but on examining the returns for several months past, we find that a steady improvement has been going on, the following having been the total annual values during the last two years:—Year ending April 5, 1847, £926,084; year ending April 5, 1848, £1,047,766. It is true that in 1845 very large shipments took place, the declared value for the 12 months ending April 5, 1846, having amounted to £1,031,700—a sum, nevertheless, which has been exceeded by the exports of the year ending the 5th of April last. This fact, we repeat, affords satisfactory evidence of improvement.

EXPORTS OF SUGAR AND MOLASSES FROM CUBA.

EXPORTS OF SUGAR FROM THE FIRST OF JANUARY TO THE END OF JUNE.

	From Havana.		From Matanzas.	
	1847.	1848.	1847.	1848.
To Boston.....boxes	18,144	6,985	24,721	11,479
New York, Philadelphia & Baltimore.	63,053	42,295	56,909	31,599
Other ports in the United States.....	32,701	8,167	7,031	5,692
Great Britain.....	82,243	31,325	57,570	9,586
Cowes and the Baltic.....	70,084	119,673	45,518	66,196
Hamburg and Bremen.....	25,059	42,871	12,905	21,925
Holland and Belgium.....	31,699	21,935	7,103	9,678
Spain.....	53,971	92,583	9,903	18,662
France, &c.....	34,744	42,034	24,891	17,626
Total.....	411,698	407,868	246,551	192,084

EXPORTS OF MOLASSES FROM THE FIRST OF JANUARY TO THE END OF JUNE.

	From Havana.		From Matanzas.		From Cardenas.	
	1847.	1848.	1847.	1848.	1847.	1848.
To Boston.....hhds.	6,045	5,493	6,680	8,387	21,960	21,917
Other eastern ports.....	8,187	7,059	11,584	19,524	11,474	17,028
N. York, Philadelphia & Baltimore	5,969	5,223	10,499	11,337	18,870	21,599
Southern ports of United States....	4,761	2,724	3,490	3,434	4,259	1,587
British provinces.....	439	95	5,171	3,329	1,153	643
Great Britain.....	1,097	4,111	2,142	2,058	966
Other ports in Europe.....	278	226	3,568	214
Total.....	26,776	20,820	45,103	48,367	59,774	63,740

COMMERCIAL REGULATIONS.

COMMERCIAL ORDINANCES OF MAURITIUS AND DEPENDENCIES.

WE have received from the Department of State, at Washington, official copies of several ordinances "Enacted by the Governor of Mauritius with the advice and consent of the council of the government thereof." The ordinances (seven) are in the English and French languages, and numbered 3, 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and are entitled as follows:—

No. 3. "To repeal and alter the colonial duties levied on the exportation of certain goods."

No. 6. "For altering and consolidating the port charges upon vessels in the harbor of Port Louis."

No. 8. "For altering and amending the immigration law on spirits."

No. 9. "For altering and amending the colonial laws regulating the customs duties."

No. 10. "To alter and amend the colonial law relating to the quay duties and wharfage dues."

No. 11. "For the purpose of placing certain articles of foreign production, when imported into Mauritius direct from the place of produce, on the same footing as if such articles were imported through the United Kingdom; and of repealing the duties of customs on certain other articles."

No. 12. "For repealing the tonnage dues and the duties on coasting vessels, and for altering the duties on the licenses of boats, lighters, &c."

We publish the several ordinances in the order as enumerated above, beginning No. 3 and closing with No. 12. Each ordinance is signed "D. W. Ricketts, Secretary of the Council; published by order of His Excellency the Governor, George F. Dick, Colonial Secretary;" which we have omitted for the sake of brevity.

III.

TO REPEAL AND ALTER THE COLONIAL DUTIES LEVIED ON THE EXPORTATION OF CERTAIN GOODS.

Whereas it is expedient to repeal and alter the colonial export duties of customs levied on certain articles the produce of Mauritius: His Excellency the Governor in council has ordered and does hereby order:—

A colonial customs duty of nine pence for every 100 lbs. nett French weight of sugar exported to be levied.—Art. 1. In lieu of the duty of 1s. per 100 lbs. French imposed by the arrete of 30th Fructidor, an 12, on the exportation of sugar, there shall be raised, levied, and collected on the exportation of all sugar the produce of Mauritius a colonial customs duty of nine pence for every 100 lbs. nett French weight.

The duties on the exportation of ebony, coffee, cotton, cloves, &c., repealed.—Art. 2. The duties imposed by the said arrete, and also the duties imposed by government authorities on the exportation of ebony, coffee, cotton, cloves, indigo, clove stalks, tortoise shell, and gums, the produce of Mauritius are hereby repealed.

Promulgation.—Art. 3. The present Ordinance shall have effect from the day of its publication.

Passed in council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this 7th day of February, 1848.

VI.

FOR ALTERING AND CONSOLIDATING THE PORT CHARGES UPON VESSELS IN THE HARBOR OF PORT LOUIS.

Whereas it is expedient to alter and consolidate in one Ordinance the several port charges leviable under sundry Ordinances and notices upon vessels entering or clearing from the harbor of Port Louis: His Excellency the Governor in council has ordered and does hereby order:—

The charges hitherto levied on vessels entering or clearing from the harbor of Port Louis shall cease and be replaced by the different charges fixed in the following schedule.—Art. 1. The several charges leviable upon vessels entering or clearing from the harbor or roadstead of Port Louis under the Ordinances Nos. 44 of 1829, 17 of 1840, and proclamation of 22d September, 1841, and under the notices dated 7th December, 1825, 1st August, 1841, and 9th September, 1846, shall cease, and in lieu thereof there shall be levied the several following charges, that is to say:—

SCHEDULE OF CHARGES.

For pilotage—inwards, per foot.....	0	5	0
“ outwards, “	0	5	0
For tugging vessels by the post office steamer, inwards or outwards, namely:			
For vessels under 200 tons, each.....	5	0	0
“ of 200 tons or upwards, per ton.....	0	0	6
For the use of warps and boats, namely:—			
Inwards, for each vessel above 100 tons burthen.....	3	0	0
The same, if the post office steamer be employed.....	1	0	0
Outwards.....	3	0	0
For anchorage dues:—			
Vessels trading with Madagascar or dependencies, per ton of register.....	0	0	3
All other vessels breaking bulk or receiving cargo, “ “	0	0	8
Vessels in distress, provided their stay in port does not exceed 15 days, per ton of register.....	0	0	4
For moving from one berth in harbor to another, or to hulks, each time.....	4	0	0
For swinging alongside hulks.....	2	0	0
For remooring.....	2	0	0
For the use of the mooring chains, or the anchors which are placed round the “Trou Fanfaron,” namely:—			
For each vessel under 100 tons, per day.....	0	1	0
“ “ of 100 tons and not above 200, per day.....	0	2	0
“ “ above 200, per day.....	0	4	0
For the use of an anchor from 4,500 lbs. to 3,500 lbs., per day.....	0	16	0
“ “ 3,500 2,500 “	0	12	0
“ “ 2,500 2,000 “	0	8	0
“ “ 2,000 1,500 “	0	4	0
“ a chain from 14 inches to 16 inches “	1	12	0
“ “ 11 13 “	1	4	0
“ “ 8 10 “	1	0	0
“ “ 6 7 “	0	12	0
“ “ 4 5 “	0	8	0
For vessels remaining swung on the warps above 24 hours, namely:—			
Under 100 tons.....	1	0	0
Of 100 tons or upwards.....	4	0	0
For port and police clearance, namely:—			
On vessels trading with Madagascar and dependencies, each.....	0	10	0
On all other vessels, each.....	1	10	0
For the dredging service.—An additional proportional amount on all other charges, namely:			
On vessels under 350 tons per register.....	10	per cent.	
“ of 350 tons or upwards.....	15	“	

Art. 2. The present Ordinance shall take effect from the day of its publication.

Passed in council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this 7th day of February, 1848.

VIII.

FOR ALTERING AND AMENDING THE IMMIGRATION LAW ON SPIRITS.

Whereas by Ordinance No. 7 of 1842, a tax of 4s. per gallon is imposed on spirits imported: And whereas it is expedient that the said tax be charged according to the degree of strength by which such spirits exceed the strength of proof: His Excellency the Governor in council has ordered and does hereby order:—

Duty to be levied on spirits.—Art. 1. The duty of 4s. per gallon imposed on spirits imported by Ordinance No. 7 of 1842, shall be levied on each gallon of spirits of or under the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and the like sum shall be levied for every gallon which may result from such spirits exceeding the strength of proof.

The tax, how collected and applied.—Art. 2. This tax shall be levied, collected, and applied in the same manner with the duties and taxes imposed by Ordinance No. 7 of 1842.

Art. 3. The present Ordinance shall take effect from the day of its publication.

Passed in council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this 14th day of February, 1848.

IX.

FOR ALTERING AND AMENDING THE COLONIAL LAWS REGULATING THE CUSTOMS DUTIES.

Whereas the duties imposed in the United Kingdom by the Act 8 and 9 Vic., cap. 90, having been altered by subsequent acts, orders of Her Majesty in council, and of the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty's Treasury, it has become necessary to alter and

amend the Ordinance 56 of 1844, and to make new laws and regulations in reference to the duties leviable under that Ordinance: His Excellency the Governor in council has ordered and does hereby order:—

Duties, how to be levied and recovered.—Art. 1. Instead of the duties imposed by Ordinance 56 of 1844 on certain articles mentioned in the "Table of Duties" hereinafter contained, the several duties set forth in the said table shall be levied, recovered, and collected in like manner as if such duties had been imposed by the said Ordinance No. 56 of 1844.

TABLE OF DUTIES AT MAURITIUS.

1. On rum or arrack, being the production or manufacture of the United Kingdom or of any of the British possessions in America or of any British possession within the limits of the East India Company's charter, into which the importation of rum or arrack, the produce of any foreign country or of any British possession into which foreign sugar or rum may be legally imported, is prohibited.

4s. per gallon of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and the like sum for every gallon which may result from such spirits exceeding the strength of proof.

2. On spirits not being rum or arrack the production or manufacture of the United Kingdom or of any of the British possessions in America or of any of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter.

6d. per gallon of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and the like sum for every gallon which may result from such spirits exceeding the strength of proof.

3. On spirits not being the production or manufacture of the United Kingdom or of any British possession in America or of any of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter.

1s. per gallon of any strength not exceeding the strength of proof by Sykes' hydrometer, and the like sum for every gallon which may result from such spirits exceeding the strength of proof.

4. On cordials or spirits sweetened or mixed with any article so that the degree of strength thereof cannot be exactly ascertained by Sykes' hydrometer: 3s. per gallon in volume.

5. On all tobacco imported, namely: leaf or unmanufactured tobacco, 1d. per lb.

Manufactured tobacco, 3d. per lb.

Segars and snuff, 8d. per lb.

Goods not the produce of the United Kingdom or of any British possession imported into Mauritius without drawback or duties to pay only the duties leviable on the like goods imported from the United Kingdom.—Art. 2. If any goods not being the growth, production, or manufacture of the United Kingdom or of any of the British possessions in America or of any of the British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter, or of the produce of any of the British fisheries be imported from the United Kingdom being there free of duty on importation, or after having there paid the duties of consumption, be imported into Mauritius from thence without drawback of such duties.

Such goods shall be charged with the same duties only as are leviable on the like British goods when imported from the United Kingdom.

Articles exempted from duty on their importation.—Art. 3. The following articles shall be exempted from the payment of duty on their importation into Mauritius in the same manner as if such goods had been enumerated in the "Table of Exemptions" subjoined to the Ordinance No. 56 of 1844, namely:—

Bricks, tiles, lime, slates, coals, books and maps, articles of naval uniform, the produce or manufacture of the United Kingdom.

Firewood, bran, wheatmeal, pollard, lentils, seeds intended for agricultural or horticultural purposes, whether British or foreign.

Sal ammoniac, saltpetre, and phosphate of soda, the produce of British possessions within the limits of the East India Company's charter to be used for agricultural purposes solely.

Vacoea leaves and Vacoea bags, the produce or manufacture of places within the limits of the East India Company's charter.

Art. 4. The present Ordinance shall have effect from the day of its publication.

Passed in council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this 14th day of February, 1848.

X.

TO ALTER AND AMEND THE COLONIAL LAW RELATING TO THE QUAY DUTIES AND WHARFAGE DUES.

Whereas by an Ordinance of His Excellency the Governor in council dated the second day of April, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-eight, and numbered thirty-two of

that year, certain quay duties and wharfage dues are imposed on goods, wares, and merchandise imported into and exported from the Island of Mauritius, and it is expedient to alter and amend the same: His Excellency the Governor in council has ordered and does hereby order:—

Quay duties and wharfage dues repealed.—Art. 1. The quay duties and wharfage dues set forth in the table subjoined to Ordinance No. 32 of 1828, are hereby repealed.

Quay duties to be paid on goods imported into and exported from the Island.—Art. 2. There shall be raised, levied, collected, and paid upon goods, wares, and merchandise imported into and exported from the island of Mauritius, the quay dues set forth in the following table, that is to say:—

TABLE OF QUAY DUTIES AT MAURITIUS.

CLASS 1.

1. Bags, mats, bales, bundles, trusses, and other soft packages not exceeding 75 lbs.....	each one half penny.
2. Casks, kegs, boxes, parcels, not exceeding 25 lbs.....	“
3. Demijohns, dubbers, cases, boxes, and casks empty.....	“
4. Jars, jugs, tins, not exceeding the content of 3 gallons.....	“
5. Segars in single or separate packages or boxes of not more than 500.....	each one penny.
6. Iron pots and kettles.....	“
7. Hides, raw and tanned.....	“
8. Single or loose bolts of canvass.....	“

CLASS 2.

1. Bags, bales, bundles, mats, and trusses above 75 lbs. and not exceeding 150 lbs.....	“
2. Casks or kegs above 25 lbs. and not exceeding 75 lbs.....	“
3. Half-boxes or smaller packages of tea not exceeding 12 lbs., and boxes and parcels exceeding 25 lbs.....	“
4. Jars, jugs, and tins above 3 and not exceeding the content of 5 gallons.....	“
5. Demijohns and dubbers not exceeding 6 gallons in capacity.	“
6. Segars in single or separate packages or boxes exceeding 500 and not exceeding 1,000.....	“
7. Half-tubs of sugar candy, oars.....	“
8. Chairs.....	“
9. Chinaware, earthenware.....	per 25 pieces 1 penny.
10. Coconuts.....	100 in number 1 penny.
11. Salted and dried fish.....	per cwt. one penny.
12. Gargoulettes per 25.....	“
13. Cheeses not exceeding 12 lbs. in each, packed singly.....	“
14. Cordage, cables, and hawsers.....	“

CLASS 3.

1. Bags, bales, bundles, mats, and trusses above 150 lbs., and not exceeding 200 lbs.....	each two pence.
2. Casks or kegs above 75 lbs., and not exceeding 100 lbs. or 25 gallons.....	“
3. Boxes, cases, and baskets not above 2 cubic feet in measurement, cases and baskets, containing wine, oil, spirits, or other liquids not exceeding one dozen bottles each.....	“
4. Jars of almonds, sausages, biscuits, preserves, &c., exceeding the capacity of 5 gallons or not above 100 lbs.....	“
5. Dubbers, &c., above the capacity of 6 gallons.....	“
6. Iron and brass cauldrons.....	“
7. Tubs of sugar candy and boxes of tea exceeding 12 lbs.....	“
8. Horns, slates, bricks, and tiles.....	per 100 two pence.
9. Grinding stones.....	each two pence.
10. Cheese packed singly exceeding 12 lbs. and not exceeding 30 lbs.....	“
11. Carrots of tobacco.....	per score two pence.
12. Turtles.....	“

CLASS 4.

- | | |
|--|------------------------|
| 1. Bags, bales, and bundles above 200 lbs. and not exceeding 250 lbs..... | each three pence. |
| 2. Casks or kegs above 100 lbs. or 25 gallons in content and not exceeding 300 lbs. or 60 gallons in capacity..... | " |
| 3. Spars and masts..... | " |
| 4. Copper in sheets..... | per cwt. three pence. |
| 5. Cheese in tubs or in bulk..... | " |
| 6. Hams and dried beef..... | " |
| 7. Wax and rattans..... | " |
| 8. Shingles..... | per 1,000 three pence. |

CLASS 5.

- | | |
|---|------------------|
| 1. Bags, bales, and bundles above 250 lbs. and not exceeding 500 lbs..... | each four pence. |
| 2. Casks above 300 lbs. or 60 gallons in content and not exceeding 500 lbs. or 100 gallons in capacity..... | " |
| 3. Boxes, cases, trunks, and baskets above 2 and not exceeding 4 cubic feet in measurement..... | " |
| 4. Jars containing almonds, sausages, &c., exceeding 100 lbs. in weight..... | " |
| 5. Sugar pans..... | " |
| 6. Slabs of marble..... | " |
| 7. Anchors not exceeding 500 lbs. weight..... | " |
| 8. Horses, mules, and asses..... | " |
| 9. Crates..... | " |

CLASS 6.

- | | |
|---|-------------------|
| 1. Bales, bags, and bundles exceeding 500 lbs..... | each eight pence. |
| 2. Casks exceeding 500 lbs. or 120 gallons in capacity..... | " |
| 3. Boxes, trunks, and baskets above 4 cubic feet in measurement, chests or cases of tea, segars or other goods having inner packages..... | " |
| 4. Anchors exceeding 500 lbs..... | " |
| 5. Piano fortes..... | " |

CLASS 7.

- | | |
|---|-----------------------|
| 1. Wood, stone, iron, lead, and other heavy goods, machinery, boilers, chain-cables, ordnance, iron tanks, and boats..... | per ton one shilling. |
|---|-----------------------|

CLASS 8.

- | | |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Carriages of all sorts..... | each two shillings. |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|

Goods landed from ships entering the port in distress to pay half the above rates.

Goods exempted from the payment of quay dues.—Art. 3. The following goods shall be exempt from payment of the quay dues established by the foregoing table, namely:—
Government, military, and naval stores.

Passengers' baggage.

Goods landed from or shipped on coasting vessels and vessels trading to the dependencies.

Goods landed from or shipped on board of vessels belonging to His Highness the Imam of Muscat.

Ice and guano manure.

Art. 4. This Ordinance shall take effect from the day of its publication.

Passed in council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this 14th day of February, 1848.

XI.

FOR THE PURPOSE OF PLACING CERTAIN ARTICLES OF FOREIGN PRODUCTION WHEN IMPORTED INTO MAURITIUS DIRECT FROM THE PLACE OF PRODUCE ON THE SAME FOOTING AS IF SUCH ARTICLES WERE IMPORTED THROUGH THE UNITED KINGDOM; AND OF REPEALING THE DUTIES OF CUSTOMS ON CERTAIN OTHER ARTICLES.

Whereas by an act passed in the session of Parliament holden in the ninth and tenth years of the reign of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, entitled "An act to enable the legislatures of certain British possessions to reduce or repeal certain duties of customs," it is enacted that if and whenever the legislature of the Island of Mauritius make or pass any act or Ordinance, acts or Ordinances, reducing or repealing all or any of the duties of customs imposed by an act passed in the session of Parliament holden in the eighth and ninth years of the reign of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, entitled "An act to regulate the

trade of British possessions abroad," upon any articles imported into the said island, and if Her Majesty, by and with the advice of her Privy Council, assent to such act or Ordinance, acts or Ordinances, such duties of customs shall, upon the proclamation of such assent in the colony or at any time thereafter which may be fixed by such act or Ordinance, be so reduced or repealed in such possession as if such reduction or repeal had been effected by an act or acts of the imperial legislature, anything in any act to the contrary thereof notwithstanding: And whereas it is expedient to reduce or repeal certain duties of customs imposed by the last recited act on certain articles imported into the said Island of Mauritius: His Excellency the Governor in council has ordered and does hereby order:—

Change of duties on foreign articles.—Art. 1. In lieu of the duties of customs now chargeable, under the act last recited, on the foreign articles hereinafter next mentioned imported into the Island of Mauritius, the following duties shall be charged, levied, and recovered in the same manner as if they had been imposed by the last recited act, that is to say:—

Hams.....	per cwt.	2s. 3d.
Sausages and puddings.....		2 3
Tongues, salted or cured.....		2 3
Butter.....		6 0
Cheese.....		3 9

No abatement of such duties shall be made if any of the articles hereinbefore mentioned shall be imported through the United Kingdom, having been warehoused therein, and being exported from the warehouse, or the duties thereon, if there paid, having been drawn back.

Foreign articles exempted from duty.—Art. 2. The duties of customs now payable, under the act last recited, upon the foreign articles hereinafter next mentioned imported into the Island of Mauritius, shall cease and determine, that is to say:—

Bacon, beef salted, lard, pork salted, bran, wheat meal, pollard, dholl, lentils, leeches, vacoa leaves or vacoa bage, government stores and articles for the public service.

Art. 3: This Ordinance shall come into operation at such time as shall be fixed by a proclamation of the Governor.

Passed in council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this 14th day of February, 1848.

XII.

FOR REPEALING THE TONNAGE DUES AND THE DUTIES ON COASTING VESSELS, AND FOR ALTERING THE DUTIES ON THE LICENSES OF BOATS, LIGHTERS, &c.

Whereas it is expedient to reduce or repeal certain colonial duties imposed by Ordinance No. 65 of 1830, No. 4 of 1840, and by a proclamation dated 16th December, 1823: His Excellency the Governor in council has ordered and does hereby order:—

Duties on boats and coasting vessels repealed.—Art. 1. The duties imposed by Ordinances No. 65 of 1830, and No. 4 of 1840, on boats and vessels employed in the coasting trade round the Island of Mauritius, and the regulations enacted by the said Ordinances are hereby repealed.

License required for vessels under 15 tons employed in the coasting trade.—Art. 2. All vessels under 15 tons burthen and which are not required to be registered under the act of Parliament 8 and 9 Vic., cap. 89, shall, when employed in the coasting trade round the Island of Mauritius, have a license from the collector of Her Majesty's customs; and if any such vessel be so employed without such license, the owner or owners shall be liable to a penalty not exceeding £10 sterling.

Tonnage duty on goods repealed.—Art. 3. The duty imposed by the thirteenth article of the proclamation, dated the sixteenth day of December, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-three, on goods landed from or shipped on board vessels in the harbor of Port Louis, and commonly termed tonnage duty, and the regulations enacted by the said article are hereby repealed.

Duty of 4s. per ton per annum to be levied on the licenses of boats, lighters, &c.—Art. 4. In lieu of the duties imposed by the fifth article of the proclamation, dated the sixteenth day of December, one thousand eight hundred and twenty-three, on the licenses of boats, lighters, barges, and other craft employed in loading or unloading vessels or in supplying and discharging ballast, there shall be levied from and after the 31st day of March, one thousand eight hundred and forty-eight, on the licenses of boats, lighters, barges, and other craft employed for each, any, or all of the purposes aforesaid a duty of four shillings per ton per annum.

Art. 5. This Ordinance shall take effect from the day of its publication, with the exception of the duties imposed by the 4th article, which shall come into operation from and after the 31st of March next.

Passed in council at Port Louis, Island of Mauritius, this 14th day of February, 1848.

NEW NORWEGIAN TARIFF.

A letter recently received in this country from a reliable source at Stockholm, furnishes information which cannot fail to be interesting to persons engaged in the trade between the United States and Sweden and Norway, and to the readers of the *Merchants' Magazine* generally. Extracts from the communication referred to are subjoined.

“STOCKHOLM, August 1, 1848.

The Norwegian Storthing has recently adopted a new Tariff. The document in question is dated at Christiania, the 31st day of May, and will continue in force from its commencement, July 1, 1848, to the same date in 1851.

“Since the receipt of this Tariff, I have employed considerable time in a minute examination of its contents, and now submit an extract of such duties as bear especially on articles of American produce and manufacture.

“It may be remarked, in advance, that the Norwegian weights and measures are the same as those of Denmark. Their relative value and capacity—compared with those of the United States—will be found in the latter pages of this despatch.

“Adopting an alphabetical arrangement of the Norwegian Tariff, we extract the following duties:—

<i>Cotton</i>per lb.	\$0 00½	<i>Grain not ground—</i>	
In bond not less than 2,400 lbs.		Maize.....per bbl.	\$0 60
<i>Cotton Yarn—</i>		Malt, all kinds.....per bbl.	0 37½
White, not twisted.....per lb.	0 05	In bond not less than 50 bbls.	
In bond not less than 200 lbs.		Rye.....per bbl.	0 37½
White, twisted.....per lb.	0 08½	Rye at the custom-houses of	
In bond not less than 120 lbs.		Hammerfert, Vard and Vads	
Dyed.....per lb.	0 10	per bbl.	0 18½
In bond not less than 100 lbs.		In bond not less than 50 bbls.	
<i>Cotton Manufactures—</i>		<i>Grain (coarse ground) or Grits—</i>	
Blond lace, bobinett, bone lace,		Of buckwheat, per bbl. or 10	
and gauze.....per lb.	1 00	lisponds.....	0 90
Unbleached cotton cloth (plain		In bond not less than 20 bbls.	
or com. linen texture).per lb.	0 16½	Of barley (whole) per bbl. or	
In bond not less than 100 lbs.		14 lisponds.....	1 00
Hosiery, knit or woven, both		Of barley at the custom-houses	
dyed and not dyed, such as		of Hammerfert, Vard and	
stockings, bonnets, jackets,		Vads.....	0 50
veils, gloves or mittens, &c.	0 33½	In bond not less than 20 bbls.	
In bond not less than 50 lbs.		Of barley (in halves) per bbl.	
Printed.....per lb.	0 33½	or 11 lisponds.....	0 83½
In bond not less than 50 lbs.		Of barley at the custom-houses	
Other kinds.....per lb.	0 26½	of Hammerfert, Vard and	
In bond not less than 50 lbs.		Vads.....	0 41½
Joined with other materials,		Of oats, per bbl. or 11 lisponds	0 90
<i>vide</i> Stuffs.		Of oats at the custom-houses	
<i>Grain not ground—</i>		of Brod and Troms.....	0 45
Barley.....per bbl.	0 25	In bond not less than 12 bbls.	
Barley at the custom-houses		Of oats at the custom-houses of	
of Hammerfert, Vard and		Hammerfert, Vard and Vads Duty free.	
Vads.....per bbl.	0 12½	<i>Grain, ground—Flour or meal—</i>	
In bond not less than 50 bbls.		Buckwheat, bean and pease	
Buckwheat.....per bbl.	0 30	flour or meal, per lispond.	0 07½
In bond not less than 50 bbls.		Of barley (in bond 8 ship-	
Pease (which are not to be com-		pounds) per lispond.....	0 07½
prehended under the title of		Of barley at Hammerfert, Vard	
garden stuffs or vegetables)		and Vads.....	0 01 9-16
per bbl.	0 37½	Oat meal.....per lispond	0 05 5-6
In bond not less than 30 bbls.		Oat meal at the custom-houses	
Oats.....per bbl.	0 20	of Hammerfert, Vard and	
Oats at Hammerfert, Vard and		Vads.....	0 02½
Vads.....	0 10	In bond not less than 10 ship-	
In bond not less than 50 bbls.		pounds.	
Wheat.....per bbl.	0 60	Wheat flour and farina, (such as	
In bond not less than 30 bbls.		potato flour) &c., p. lispond	0 13½

<i>Grain, ground—Flour or meal—</i>			<i>Spermaceti—</i>	
Rye flour, per lispond	\$0 08½		Oil	\$0 01½
Rye flour at the custom-houses of Brod and Troms	0 02½		<i>Tobacco—</i>	
In bond not less than 8 ship- pounds.			Stems (in bond 1000 lbs.) per lb.	0 04 1-6
At the custom-houses of Ham- merfert, Vard and Vads....	Duty free.		Blade & carotile (in bond 1000 lbs.).....per lb.	0 04 1-6
<i>Pork and Bacon—</i>			Snuff.....per lb.	0 11½
Smoked.....per lb.	0 01½		Cigars.....per lb.	0 25
Salted.....per lb.	0 01½		For smoking, chewing, and oth- er kinds not enumerated, per lb.....	0 08½
In bond 600 lbs.			No tare is allowed on the papers in which tobacco is packed.	
<i>Rice</i>per bbl.	0 61½		<i>Stuffs, made of cotton, wool, lin- en, hair, or of two or a great- er number of these materials, per lb.....</i>	
Flour.....per lb.	0 02½		In bond not less than 50 lbs.	0 26½
In bond 15 barrels of rice and 800 lbs. of flour.				
<i>Stearine</i>per lb.	0 03½			
Candles.....per lb.	0 06½			
<i>Spermaceti</i>	Duty free.			
Candles.....per lb.	0 10			

"As to Norwegian weights and measures, it may be remarked that the pound is about *one-tenth* greater than that of the United States, giving actually for each 100 pounds Norwegian, 110 25-100 airoirdupois.

"The *lispond* contains 16 Norwegian, or about 17½ English pounds.

"The 'Toende,' which has been translated '*barrels*' in the extracts given, may be estimated at a trifle less than 4 English bushels. When great is required, its contents are expressed by 3,950 bushels and decimals, being a very near approximation to the amount first stated.

"With 1,400 miles of sea-coast to protect from smuggling, the Norwegians have acted far more wisely than their neighbors. They have admitted many articles to the ports of Bod and Troms at *half rates* of duty, while at Hammerfert, Vard and Vads, they are *duty free*."

TARIFF REGULATIONS FOR CALIFORNIA.

The following circular, addressed by the Secretary of the Treasury to collectors and other officers of the customs, is published in the Merchants' Magazine for the information of merchants trading with that part of the American Union:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, October 7th, 1848.

On the 30th of May last, upon the exchange of ratifications of our treaty with Mexico, California became a part of the American Union; in consequence of which, various questions have been presented by merchants and collectors for the decision of this department.

By the Constitution of the United States it is declared that "*all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land.*" By the treaty with Mexico, California is annexed to this Republic, and the Constitution of the United States is extended over that territory, and is in full force throughout its limits. Congress, also, by several enactments subsequent to the ratification of the treaty, have distinctly recognized California as a part of the Union, and have extended over it in several important particulars the laws of the United States.

Under these circumstances the following instructions are issued by this department:—

1st. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of California, shipped therefrom at any time since the 30th of May last, are entitled to admission free of duty into all the ports of the United States.

2d. All articles of the growth, produce, or manufacture of the United States are entitled to admission free of duty into California, as are also all foreign goods which are exempt from duty by the laws of Congress, or on which goods the duties prescribed by those laws have been paid to any collector of the United States, previous to their introduction into California.

3d. Although the Constitution of the United States extends to California, and Congress have recognized it by law as a part of the Union, and legislated for it as such, yet it is not brought by law within the limits of any collection district, nor has Congress authorized the appointment of any officers to collect the revenue accruing on the import of foreign dutiable goods into that territory. Under these circumstances, although this depart-

ment may be unable to collect the duties accruing on importations from foreign countries into California, yet, if foreign dutiable goods should be introduced there and shipped thence to any port or place of the United States, they will be subject to duty, as also to all the penalties prescribed by law when such importation is attempted without the payment of duties.

R. J. WALKER,

Secretary of the Treasury.

NAUTICAL INTELLIGENCE.

TO RIO AND OTHER TRADERS AND NAVIGATORS.

NATIONAL OBSERVATORY, Washington, August 9th, 1848.

THE brig *Oceanus*, Captain Sullivan, with the wind and current charts on board, sailed March 13th, 1848, from Boston bound to Rio, where she arrived July 8th, after a passage of 117 days.

It is known that Captain Sullivan set out with the intention of taking the new route to the Equator. I say to the Equator, for at that time the Rio sheet was not published, and I had given no sailing directions as to going south from the Equator, further than to express the opinion that vessels would find no difficulty in weathering Cape St. Roque from the point where the new route requires them to cross the Equator.

Had Captain Sullivan been provided with the sailing directions which have since been given for clearing St. Roque, (which it was impossible for him to have,) and had he followed them with as much confidence as he did those for reaching the Equator, there is every reason for the belief that his passage to Rio would have been less by a week or ten days than the usual average.

That this long passage may not serve to prejudice navigators against the new route on the charts, I have deemed it proper to make the following statement, based on the abstract of the voyage which Captain Sullivan has been so kind as to send me.

With admirable judgment he followed the chart as far as it went, crossing the Equator on April 13th in about $31^{\circ} 45' W.$, on the 31st day out, which gave him a passage, so far, of 10 days less than the average by the same route. His guide went no further; and after crossing the Line, he was left to his own judgment.

I quote from the abstract which he has sent me:—

	Latitude.	Longitude.	Currents.	Winds and remarks.
April 12.....	$0^{\circ} 44' N.$	$31^{\circ} 38' W.$	$0^{\circ} 5' W.$	East, moderate.
13.....	$1^{\circ} 39' S.$	$31^{\circ} 50' W.$	$1^{\circ} 0' W.$	East, strong tide up.
14.....	$2^{\circ} 10' S.$	$30^{\circ} 59' W.$	$1^{\circ} 0' W. 10^{\circ} N.$	N. N. E., light wind.
15.....	$3^{\circ} 05' S.$	$32^{\circ} 50' W.$	$1^{\circ} 5' W.$	E. S. E., “
16.....	$3^{\circ} 57' S.$	$35^{\circ} 10' W.$	$2^{\circ} 5' W. by N.$	“ “
17.....	$3^{\circ} 40' S.$	$34^{\circ} 12' W.$	$2^{\circ} 5' W. by N.$	“ “
18.....	$2^{\circ} 00' S.$	$37^{\circ} 15' W.$	$2^{\circ} 5' W. by N.$	E. E. & E., squalls and rain.
19.....	$1^{\circ} 56' S.$	$39^{\circ} 40' W.$	$1^{\circ} 7' W. by N.$	“ “
20.....	$1^{\circ} 20' S.$	$39^{\circ} 12' W.$	$1^{\circ} 5' W. by N.$	Variable from north.
21.....	$0^{\circ} 44' S.$	$40^{\circ} 20' W.$	$1^{\circ} 9' W. N. W.$	“ and light airs.
22.....	$0^{\circ} 10' S.$	$41^{\circ} 01' W.$	$1^{\circ} 9' W. N. W.$	Moderate squalls from east.
23.....	$0^{\circ} 15' S.$	$40^{\circ} 59' W.$	$1^{\circ} 2' W. N. W.$	“ “
24.....	$0^{\circ} 20' S.$	$41^{\circ} 20' W.$	$2^{\circ} 0' W. N. W.$	Calm.
25.....	$0^{\circ} 15' N.$	$42^{\circ} 00' W.$	$1^{\circ} 5' W. N. W.$	Light airs from east.

And so on, getting as far to leeward as $11^{\circ} 30' N.$ in $52^{\circ} W.$ Now it will be observed that the winds on the 18th and 19th were as fair as winds could blow for going to the southward, and that, instead of standing in that direction, the brig was running off to northward and westward at the rate of 210 miles one day and 140 the next.

If she chose not to take advantage of a fair wind, it certainly can be no fault of the chart.

June 21st, or 69 days after crossing the Line the first time, he crossed it again in very nearly the same place; where I again extract from his log:—

	Latitude.	Longitude.	Currents.	Winds and remarks.
June 20.....	$1^{\circ} 01' N.$	$31^{\circ} 52' W.$	$0^{\circ} 7' W.$	S. E., squalls and moderate.
21.....	$0^{\circ} 13' S.$	$31^{\circ} 52' W.$	$0^{\circ} 8' W.$	S. E. by E. and E. S. E., mod.
22.....	$2^{\circ} 13' S.$	$32^{\circ} 01' W.$	$0^{\circ} 8' W.$	S. E., stiff breeze.
23.....	$2^{\circ} 00' S.$	$31^{\circ} 34' W.$	$1^{\circ} 0' W.$	“ “
24.....	$4^{\circ} 07' S.$	$32^{\circ} 41' W.$	$1^{\circ} 0' W.$	S. S. E., “
25.....	$5^{\circ} 24' S.$	$33^{\circ} 35' W.$	$1^{\circ} 0' W. N. W.$	S. E. and E. S. E., heavy squalls of 4 hours duration.

And so on, weathering St. Roque without difficulty, and arriving at Rio July 8th.

Now, I submit it to any navigator to say whether the winds, notwithstanding the westerly current, were not more favorable for clearing Cape St. Roque after crossing the Line the first time than they were the second; and I leave it to them, further, to say whether this journal is not calculated to inspire confidence as to my route.

I have the tracks of eight vessels that have sailed the new route to the Line, and the mean passage of the eight is short of 31 days, which is 25 per cent less than the average passage by the usual route.

More ample materials, collected since the chart was first published, have enabled me to give more specific sailing directions for this route. They will be ready for publication in a few days. But as vessels are daily departing in that direction, I will here remark that, at this season of the year, I would recommend them to cross the parallel of 30° N. in about 50° W. to make the best of their way thence to 5° or 6° N. in about 30° W.; near which they may expect to meet the S. E. trades. After getting there, vessels are recommended to make the best of their way to southward, and, in case of their being not likely to clear St. Roque, they are advised not to tack, unless with a favorable slant of wind, but to stand boldly on until they get as near the land as it is prudent to go, recollecting that, by so doing, all the chances of a change of wind are in their favor, and bearing in mind that the currents are generally not so strong close into the shore as they are some 50 or 100 miles from it, as the chart shows. When, however, they are compelled to tack, with the wind obstinately in their teeth, they are recommended to make short stretches of not more than twelve hours each. In proof of the advantages of so doing, I refer to the tracks of the "Osceola" and "Plymouth," last April, which are laid down in a broken green line. Those who will take the trouble to examine these two tracks will perceive that each of these vessels, had they have had the benefit of this suggestion, (which they had not,) would have saved several days between the Line and St. Roque.

M. F. MAURY.

JOURNAL OF MINING AND MANUFACTURES.

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A COTTON MILL IN INDIANA.

THE FIRST CO-PARTNERSHIP BETWEEN THE FOOD AND COTTON PRODUCING DISTRICTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

Freeman Hunt, Esq., Editor of the Merchants' Magazine, &c.

DEAR SIR:—The low prices of cotton and food in the Mississippi valley, has at length resulted in the commencement, on a large scale, of a third interest and employment in aid of the two first. The West and South have determined, by a fair experiment, to see if it is not more economical to manufacture their cotton and eat their corn at home.

The first movement is seen in the recent organization of the *Cannelton Cotton Mill*, chartered by the last legislature of Indiana, with a capital of \$500,000, and to be operated at the Cannelton Coal Banks, in Perry county, Indiana, and on the bank of the Ohio River. This site affords superior coal at four cents per bushel; it is peculiarly healthy, is below all the important obstructions in the river, and is the centre of a rich food-producing district. The financial arrangements and sales will be made in this city, where there is a large banking capital.

The stockholders in the company are substantial men, who have taken hold of the thing to make money. They number thirty-six; twenty-one are residents of Kentucky, five of Indiana, two of Louisiana, six of Mississippi, and one of Arkansas. Together, they are able to put up a cotton factory of 10,000 spindles every year, and they doubtless will do this, if they realize, on the first, even the minimum of estimated profits, or 15 per cent. They are well known throughout the country, and the result of their operations will be looked for with great interest. If this is favorable, but a few years will elapse before we shall manufacture all the coarse cotton goods (say No. 14 and under) required here or elsewhere, and which are to be made from our cotton. The effect which this change will have here and abroad, is a problem I shall not attempt to solve. That it will be seen, is as sure as that the cheapest material, the cheapest food, and the cheapest power is likely to attract the cheapest labor, and must make the cheapest goods.

This Cannelton Cotton Mill will adopt the general principles and most of the details of the "Lowell system." Ten thousand spindles will be put in operation early next fall;

and if the first work to the satisfaction of the stockholders, the number will be duplicated in the year following.

The officers of the company are *William Richardson*, president, and *Alfred Thruston*, treasurer. The machinery will be built in New England, Pittsburgh, and Louisville; the overseers, machinists, &c., and teachers of the female operatives, will be obtained from New England. Female labor can be had in the greatest abundance at an average price of \$1 50 per week, exclusive of board, and board can be had at \$1 per week. These rates are about 25 per cent lower than in New England.

I regard this movement of as much importance to the East as to the West and South-west; for this is a clear proposition, that a country, out of its infancy, which does not work up its peculiar staples, and make its *coarse* fabrics, must become a very unsafe customer to the foreign manufacturer and factor. Yours respectfully, H. S.

PROCESS OF WORKING A LAKE SUPERIOR COPPER MINE.

HORACE GREELY, Esq., the editor of the *Tribune*, who recently visited the Lake Superior copper mines, thus describes the process of opening and working a copper mine in that region:—

We will suppose that the district of country has been hurriedly examined by the pioneer adventurers, or *prospectors*, who, coasting along the lake, have landed at some petty bay or inlet, followed a stream back into the wilderness, watching the rocks it exposes, and then the faces of the cliffs, or steep, rocky eminences, around and among which it meanders, in search of mineral outcrops or indications. These discovered, of a satisfactory character, a *location* is made, and a lease of it (hitherto) taken. Next, (probably next season,) workmen, a team, provisions, powder, mining tools, &c., &c., are landed at the most convenient point on the lake, a trail cut back to the vicinity of the discovered vein or veins, and a part of the force build some sort of dwellings, while others are setting up the indispensable blacksmith's forge, hauling up the stores, (the most necessary first,) &c. As soon as possible, the vein is probed further, by pickaxe, drilling, and blasting; but, if the force consists of only three or four men, they are not likely to penetrate the earth beyond twenty feet the first season. Soon water begins to pour in, especially after storms, and still more abundantly in the thawing season, and arrangements must be made for its removal—at first by bailing, and, as the hole gradually becomes a shaft, by raising with rope and bucket, until a *wim* can be constructed, or an *adit* run up—the latter is preferable, if the ground descends rapidly from the mine in any direction. But the adit can be relied on for surface water only; your shaft will in time be below it, and then you must raise water by hand or machinery, (a wim.)

What with making road, building, getting up provisions, iron, tools, &c., cutting wood, timber, and the like, of the first five thousand days' work done on a location, only from one to two thousand, except under peculiar circumstances, can be devoted to mining; but at length, if the work is prosecuted, the shaft has obtained a depth of forty to sixty feet, at which is commenced a *drift*—a horizontal gallery or excavation in the rock following the course of the vein, (usually both ways from the shaft,) and from six to seven feet high, and four to six feet wide. The rock is not merely to be blasted out, but raised to the surface by such rude machinery as may be at command, with probably a hundred lifts of water to one of rock. The rare exceptions are the cases (like that of the Cliff) in which the vein is discovered at the base or in the side of a steep acclivity, into which may be run upon it without sinking a drift, which shall also be an adit, dispensing from the first with all necessity for raising either minerals, rock, or water. In ninety-nine of every hundred cases the process is very different from this.

But the shaft being sunk and a drift or adit run for fifty to two hundred feet, and if the product answer or exceed expectation, your vein is tolerably proved; but you have as yet obtained very little mineral. All you will obtain in sinking, even on the richest vein, will pay but a small share of the cost; in drifting you do a little better, and but a little. You want two shafts sunk, and one of them down a hundred feet so, with your second drift opened for some distance at the bottom, and now (if the vein be a good one and you have a practicable road and other fixings) you may begin to *stope* or blast down the forty or fifty feet of vein over head of each drift, in which only you can hope for profit. Six miners will take out more mineral in this manner than sixty in sinking and drifting. Very few companies have reached this point. I consider \$50,000 a moderate estimate for the cost of opening a mine in this region, counting from the location to the moment at which the mine will pay its way, and including the cost of land. The Cliff expended over \$100,000, but its managers inevitably bought some experience which others may now borrow.

When a mine has been fairly opened and proved, it will not do to work it only with a view of immediate profit by stopping out all the backs so far as you have gone down. If that course be taken, you will soon have no place to work—no mineral to take out. You must keep sinking deeper and deeper, and working your drifts longer and longer, the vein probably extending as you go down. New shafts from the surface will also be required, in order to purify the air in the mine, and afford room for hoisting out the mineral, rock, &c. If this be done energetically, the number of miners employed may be steadily increased, with a corresponding increase of product. There will also be an increasing demand for more perfect and expensive machinery, as the distance to be overcome and the amount to be raised increases. The Cliff Mine must already have at least \$30,000 worth of machinery, fixtures, &c., which it is rapidly increasing. The space about the mouth of the mine looks like a combination of ship-yard and steam-engine manufactory.

A quantity of rock and vein having been thrown down, the copper masses it contains, and the masses of rock as well, severally are here grappled by giant machinery, dragged to the most convenient spot, and lifted to the surface, where they are placed on railway trucks and promptly wheeled their several ways. If a copper mass is thrown down too heavy to be thus handled, or too large to be got up a shaft, it is at once set upon by cutters, one holding a hardened chisel, another striking heavy blows upon it with a sledge, and thus wrought upon until it is cut into two or more pieces, the largest weighing not more than two tons, though a ton and a half is the preferred maximum. These are dragged out and up, wheeled off to the place of deposit, and are soon on their way to the lake, thence taking the propeller to the Saut, and so on to Pittsburgh or Baltimore. I observed masses that have thus been cut on three sides, indicating an original bulk of ten tons or over, but such are not common, though I observed one mass in the mine which must weigh fifty tons. This, however, will doubtless, when taken down, exhibit fissures and indentations which will seriously lighten the labor of cutting it. I believe the average cost of cutting up the large masses is not far from \$10 per ton, all things considered, though rather less than that sum. If any Yankee can invent a means of cutting up these masses at a dash by steam or lightning, his fortune is made.

The masses being disposed of, the vein-stone is next in order. This is likewise hoisted out into daylight, whereof its first experience is a roasting for twelve to twenty hours on a fire of logs, after which the rock is easily knocked to pieces with a sledge, and the larger junks of copper thrown aside for barreling. The residue, in pieces of one to two inches in diameter, is now ready for *stamping*. To this end it is passed through a hopper, and along with a stream of water, under a set of steam-moved trip-hammers, pile-drivers, or what you please, with iron faces coming down alternately on their iron bed with tremendous power, and grinding the calcined rock to powder. The copper hardly condescends to be rubbed bright by this ordeal; but it comes out free and clear of rock, and is found in a trough below, whence it is taken to be barrelled for market, ready to be coined into cents, if required. These stamps, six in number, are kept steadily going, and turn out several barrels of copper daily, but the mine gains upon them, and the speedy extension of this part of the machinery is inevitable.

SARDINIAN PRODUCTS OF INDUSTRY.

The "*Journal of the Franklin Institute of the State of Pennsylvania for the Promotion of the Mechanic Arts*," an old and valuable periodical, having reached its forty-sixth volume, furnishes the following translation of a "Notice of the Sardinian Exhibition of the Products of Industry," by M. BONAFOUS:—

The work which I have the honor to present is compiled by M. le Chev. Giulio in the name of the Royal Chamber of Agriculture and Commerce, and presents a classified table of the products of Sardinian industry admitted to the public exhibition which took place last year at Turin, with a list of the recompenses awarded to the most deserving of the exhibitors. I shall confine myself to noticing only a few of the arts.

There are at present worked in the kingdom of Sardinia, 28 mines of iron ore, which employ from 3,000 to 4,000 workmen, and produce 80,000 quint. metrique of iron, value, 4,000,000 francs, (\$800,000.) This product not being sufficient for the consumption, the rich Elba ore, and charcoal from Tuscany are transported to several points on the shore of the Mediterranean to supply other works, in which they prepare 30,000 quintals of iron by the direct method, which in France is called the Catalonian, in Italy, the Ligurian process.

Add to this 8,000 quintals of wrought, and 30,000 quintals of cast iron, and we get the amount consumed.

The establishments of this country also produce steels of a remarkable temper. In the exhibition of 1844, there were files which promised competition with those of Styria and of England. The iron wire and hollow ware also attracted attention. There are three mines of argentiferous lead, those of Pesey and Macot in the Tarentaise; those of Saint-Jean-de-Maurienne and of Tenda, produce only a mean value of 300,000 francs yearly, (\$56,000.)

From 25 workings for gold only 500,000 francs are produced, (\$93,500.)

Several copper mines are also but feebly worked.

Three mines of manganese furnish 35,000 kilogrammes of peroxide (34½ tons) fit for the manufacture of chlorine for bleaching linen and cotton goods.

Two mines of cobalt are neglected.

The pottery is almost entirely abandoned to the peasants. Yet about 100,000,000 pieces of bricks and tiles are produced, of which about one-tenth part is exported.

No glass is as yet made in the Sardinian States, but several manufactories of flint and bottle glass are in progress.

The chemical products amount annually to 300,000 francs, (\$56,000.)

The Genoese paper a century ago was celebrated everywhere. At present, since England, and especially France, have paid attention to this article, it is only in Spain, Portugal, and South America, that the paper of Genoa is consumed.

Sardinian industry furnishes from 3,000,000 to 4,000,000 kilogrammes (3,000 to 4,000 tons) of leather coming from 8,000,000 or 9,000,000 raw hides, of which one-fourth are imported.

Silk holds the third rank in the scale of agricultural or national products of the kingdom after grain and wine, and is the most important object of commerce of the country. The annual production is estimated at 600,000 kilogrammes (1,322,842 lbs.) of silk, having a value of about 38,000,000 francs, (\$7,000,000.)

The silk-spinning establishments are about 1,000, and employ 65,000 persons of all ages. Were it not for the loss caused by the *muscardine** in the cocooneries, this act would suffice of itself to pay the whole expenses of the government.

The cotton trade furnishes about 6,000,000 francs (\$1,122,000) of spun cotton, and employs more than 5,000 workmen.

The woollen business, notwithstanding the competition of foreign cloths, which get access indirectly to the country, furnishes more than 1,540,000 metres (1,680,000 yards) of stuffs of all qualities. To add to its importance, this manufacture awaits the time when it shall be freed from the necessity of using foreign wool.

PRODUCE OF GOLD IN RUSSIA.

Accounts from St. Petersburg, says the London Mining Journal, give a summary of the returns of gold delivered from the mines of the Ural Mountains during the half year ending the 31st December, 1847. The quantity of gold produced in the royal mines during that period had been 60 puds., 27 lbs., 77 sol., 79 parts. The private mines had produced 101 puds., 24 lbs., 1 sol., 76 parts. The quantity of platina obtained from the crown properties and from private mines had been 18 lbs., 92 sol., 17 parts. The royal and private mines in the Altai Mountains, and in East and West Siberia, had produced, in 1847, 1,434 puds., 12 lbs., 57 sol., of gold; and the district of Nertschinskische, 25 puds.—making a total of 1,780 puds., 37 lbs., 69 sol., for the year 1847, independently of the silver obtained from the Altai Mountains and Nertschinskische, which amounted altogether to 168 puds., 25 lbs. more than in 1846.

THE COAL FIELDS IN ENGLAND AND WALES.

A Ruabon correspondent in the *Chester Chronicle*, signing himself "Asbestos," says that the North Wales coal field, measuring from the point of Ayr, in Flintshire, to a few miles beyond Oswestry, in Shropshire, covers an area of 200 square miles, of 10 yards in thickness. The weight of a cubic yard of compact coal is 19 cwt., 16 lbs. The total weight of the coal in this extensive area will thus be 5,929,690,000 tons. These coals at 6s. per ton, at the pit mouth, would produce £1,778,907,000. To exhaust this field it would require that 2,000,000 tons be worked annually for nearly three hundred years. The extent of the other coal-fields in England and South Wales, estimated at the same thickness as the North Wales fields, would yield 177,890,700,000 tons, which would furnish us with 40,000,000 tons of coals for nearly 4,000 years.

* A disease of the silk worm—a kind of mould or mouldiness which destroys it.

MINERAL RESOURCES OF THE FAR WEST.

The *Prairie du Chien* of July 26th states that Mr. A. Randall, of the United States Geological Corps, accompanied by his assistant, Major M. Dagger, of Iowa, reached this place on Wednesday, July 19th, from the sources of the Des Moines River, which he has explored from its mouth. He has also made a critical examination of the Coteau des Prairies, west of the river, and the western portion of the Undine Region of Nicollet, on the east.

Mr. Randall speaks in the highest terms of the country which he traversed for beauty, agricultural capacity, and mineral resources. Coal was found for 200 miles on the Des Moines, and from indications, heavy deposits of iron ore are believed to exist. Gypsum, in abundance, for miles was encountered; an article that is very important in the arts, and extensively used in the East for agricultural purposes. This must prove of immense value to the West, as this is the great valley of the Mississippi. Limestone that makes a superior hydraulic lime exists in abundance. Limestone suitable for lime, clay suitable for bricks, rocks suitable for polishing, for grindstones, whetstones, and for building purposes, some of superior quality, are found in abundance along the Des Moines River. There is a great abundance of water-power in the whole region over which he passed, and timber plenty throughout most of the country.

A PROCESS OF HARDENING HIDES.

The following patented process for hardening hides, extracted from Examiner Page's Report, will be found to be not a little interesting. The hide is hardened and rendered transparent as horn.

In the first place they are submitted to the sweating operation, or the liming, for removing the hair. They are then submitted to the action of powerful astringents, such as sulphuric acid, alum, or salts of tartar dissolved in water at a high temperature. During the operation of cleaning the hides of the oil, they are rubbed, or friction is applied in any convenient way, whereby the hide becomes thickened; and after this process is finished, they are rinsed in warm water and dried. After being dried they are submitted to the action of boiling linseed, or any other drying oil, and retained in the hot oil until a yellow scum appears on the surface of the hides, when they are withdrawn. If it is desired to impart color to the material, as staining it in imitation of tortoise shell, it is done while in the oil bath, and when removed from the bath it is submitted to pressure in moulds for the formation of various articles, as knife handles, &c.; for the article, when it comes hot from the oil bath, is very soft and pliable, but when allowed to cool it becomes hard, and susceptible of a high polish.

A SHOE AND BOOT MANUFACTORY.

The editor of the *Lawrence (Mass.) Courier*, gives an account of the shoe and boot manufactory of Mr. G. F. Tenney, in Georgetown, (Mass.). He says:—"The work of this establishment is intended for the South, principally, and is confined to the manufacture of boots, shoes, and brogans of the heaviest description. A large building, three stories high, is occupied exclusively for cutting, crimping, treeing, finishing, drying, and packing. Three men do the treeing and finishing; two are engaged in crimping, which is done by machinery. We were informed that this establishment used and sold last year ten and a half tons of shoe tacks and nails. The bare boxes in which to pack the boots and shoes of this establishment, cost upwards of \$1,000 per annum."

IRON MANUFACTORY AT POUGHKEEPSIE.

A new and extensive iron manufactory has recently been put in operation by Mr. William Bushnell, at the old Union Landing, near Poughkeepsie. The *Poughkeepsie Journal* says the works are very extensive, put up in the most substantial manner, and are calculated to use ten thousand tons of iron ore in a year. The operations are aided by an engine of one hundred and twenty horse power. Anthracite coal alone is used, and the same heat that melts the iron drives the engine. But large as the works now are, they are to be much extended, as soon as possible, by the construction of additional buildings, to manufacture the iron into bars, &c. A large number of hands will be constantly employed, and such an establishment cannot fail to be of great and permanent benefit to the village.

JOURNAL OF BANKING, CURRENCY AND FINANCE.

COINS AND CURRENCY OF NORWAY.

UNDER the department appropriated to "Commercial Regulations," in the present number of the Merchants' Magazine, we have published several ordinances of the Norwegian government, relating to the tariff, port charges, &c. The following particulars of the coins and currency of that country, derived from authentic sources, will not, therefore, be without value at this time:—

This country was formerly a part of the dominions of the king of Denmark, but in 1813 was transferred to Sweden. It has always preserved a separate national character, and has a distinct system of coinage.*

There appears to be no gold coin peculiar to Norway. The silver coins consist of the *rigsdaler-species*, of 120 *skillings*, the half, of 60 *skillings*, the fifth, or 24 *skillings*, and the fifteenth, or 8 *skillings*, all coined at the rate of 9½ *dalers* to the Cologne mark of fine silver. The standard fineness is 14 *lods*, (875 thousandths,) at which proportion, 8 3.32 *dalers* weigh a Cologne mark; equal to 445.8 grains to each piece. There are smaller pieces of four and two *skillings*, coined at the rate of 10 2-5 *dalers* to the fine mark.†

These are the old established standards; no change was made at the time of the alterations of Swedish coinage, in 1830. However, the *dalers* of Norway, Sweden, and Denmark are interchangeable as to intrinsic value.

The *daler* of Norway may be distinguished from that of Sweden by the legend on the obverse; in the former, the word *Norges* comes before *Sveriges*; in the latter, this order is reversed. Before the separation from Denmark, the Norwegian coins were not to be distinguished from the Danish by the legend, but by the shield containing a lion rampant, and underneath two hammers crossed, probably referring to the silver mines of Norway.

The silver mines at Kongsberg yielded 17,000 marks in the first half year of 1834;‡ and about the same amount in the whole of 1835.§

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES.

POPULATION, DEBT, LOANS, TREASURY NOTES, REVENUE, ETC.

From a circular for the European correspondence of Cammann and Whitehouse, we are permitted to copy the annexed interesting tables, compiled at their request by the Treasury Department, in order that official information might be given to foreigners desirous of investing in American stocks—of the extent of our population, resources, and debt.

STATEMENT EXHIBITING THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, THE PUBLIC DEBT, THE RECEIPTS FROM LOANS AND TREASURY NOTES, THE RECEIPTS, EXCLUSIVE OF TREASURY NOTES AND LOANS, AND THE PAYMENTS ON ACCOUNT OF THE DEBT EACH YEAR, FROM 1791 TO JUNE, 1848, INCLUSIVE.

Year.	Population.	Debt.	Receipts from loans and treasury notes.	Revenue exclusive of loans and treasury notes.	Principal and interest of debt paid.
1791	4,067,371	\$75,463,476 52	\$5,791,112 56	\$4,418,913 19	\$5,287,949 50
1792	4,205,404	77,227,924 66	5,070,806 46	3,669,960 21	7,263,665 99
1793	4,343,457	80,352,684 04	1,067,701 14	4,652,923 14	5,819,505 29
1794	5,481,500	78,427,404 77	4,609,196 78	5,431,904 87	5,801,578 09
1795	4,619,543	80,747,587 39	3,305,268 20	6,114,834 59	6,084,411 61
1796	4,757,586	83,762,172 07	362,800 00	8,377,549 65	5,835,846 44
1797	4,895,629	82,064,479 33	70,135 41	8,688,780 98	5,792,421 82

* Eckfeldt and Du Bois's Manual of Gold and Silver Coins.

† Letter of HELMICH JANSEN, Esq., United States consul at Bergen, to the Treasury Department, August, 1834.

‡ Consul's letter.

§ Karsten's Archiv. The Norwegian mark equals 3857.7 troy grains; and a mark of fine silver would be worth \$10 39 in our money.

1798	5,033,672	\$79,228,529	12	\$308,574	27	\$7,900,495	80	\$3,990,294	14
1799	5,171,715	76,408,669	77	5,074,646	53	7,546,813	31	4,596,876	78
1800	5,309,758	82,976,294	35	1,602,435	04	10,848,749	10	4,578,369	95
1801	5,502,772	83,038,050	80	10,125	00	12,935,330	95	7,291,707	04
1802	5,695,787	80,712,632	25	5,597	36	14,994,793	95	539,004	76
1803	5,888,801	77,054,686	30	11,064,097	63	7,256,159	43
1804	6,081,816	86,427,120	88	9,532	64	11,826,307	38	8,171,787	45
1805	6,274,830	82,312,150	50	128,814	94	13,561,693	20	7,369,889	79
1806	6,467,845	75,723,270	66	48,896	71	15,559,931	07	8,989,884	61
1807	6,660,859	69,218,398	64	16,398,019	26	6,307,720	10
1808	6,853,874	65,196,317	97	1,882	16	17,060,661	93	10,260,245	35
1809	7,046,888	57,023,192	09	7,773,473	12	6,452,554	16
1810	7,239,908	53,173,217	52	2,759,992	25	9,384,214	28	8,008,904	46
1811	7,479,729	48,005,587	76	8,309	05	14,423,529	00	8,009,204	05
1812	7,719,555	45,209,737	90	12,837,900	00	9,801,133	76	4,449,622	45
1813	7,939,381	55,962,827	57	26,184,435	00	14,340,409	95	11,108,123	44
1814	8,199,208	81,487,846	24	23,377,911	79	11,181,625	16	7,900,543	94
1815	8,439,034	99,833,660	15	35,261,320	78	15,696,916	82	12,628,924	35
1816	8,678,860	127,334,933	74	9,494,436	16	47,676,985	66	24,871,082	93
1817	8,918,687	123,491,965	16	734,542	59	33,099,049	74	25,423,036	12
1818	9,158,513	103,466,633	83	8,765	62	21,885,171	04	21,296,201	62
1819	9,398,339	95,529,648	28	2,291	00	24,603,374	37	7,703,926	29
1820	9,638,166	91,015,566	15	3,040,824	13	17,840,669	55	8,628,494	28
1821	9,959,965	89,987,437	66	5,000,324	00	14,573,379	72	8,367,093	62
1822	10,281,765	93,546,676	98	20,232,427	94	7,848,949	12
1823	10,603,565	90,875,877	28	20,540,666	26	5,530,016	41
1824	10,925,365	90,238,777	77	5,000,000	00	19,381,212	79	16,538,303	76
1825	11,247,165	83,788,432	71	5,000,000	00	21,840,858	02	12,095,344	78
1826	11,568,965	81,054,059	99	25,260,434	31	11,041,032	19
1827	11,890,765	73,987,357	20	22,966,363	96	10,003,668	35
1828	12,212,565	67,475,043	87	24,763,629	23	12,163,438	07
1829	12,534,365	58,421,413	67	24,827,627	38	12,383,867	78
1830	12,856,165	48,565,406	50	24,844,116	51	11,355,748	22
1831	13,277,415	39,123,191	66	28,526,820	82	16,174,378	22
1832	13,698,665	24,322,235	18	31,665,561	16	17,840,309	29
1833	14,119,915	7,001,032	88	33,948,426	25	1,543,543	38
1834	14,541,165	4,760,082	08	21,791,935	55	6,176,565	19
1835	14,962,415	351,289	05	85,430,187	10	58,191	28
1836	15,383,665	291,089	05	50,826,796	08
1837	15,804,915	1,878,223	55	2,992,989	15	24,890,864	69	21,822	91
1838	16,226,165	4,857,660	46	12,716,820	86	26,303,561	74	5,605,720	27
1839	16,647,415	11,983,737	53	3,857,276	21	30,023,966	68	11,117,987	42
1840	17,068,665	5,125,077	63	5,589,547	51	19,442,646	08	4,086,613	70
1841	17,560,082	6,737,398	00	13,659,317	39	16,850,160	27	5,600,689	74
1842	18,051,499	15,028,486	37	14,808,735	64	19,965,009	25	8,575,539	94
1843	18,542,915	27,748,188	23	12,551,409	19	8,231,000	26	861,596	55
1844	19,034,332	24,748,188	23	1,877,847	95	29,320,707	78	12,991,902	84
1845	19,525,749	17,093,794	80	29,941,853	90	8,595,049	10
1846	20,017,165	16,750,926	33	29,699,967	74	1,213,823	31
1847	20,508,582	38,956,623	38	28,900,765	36	26,437,403	16	6,719,282	37
1848	21,006,000	58,526,349	37	21,256,700	00	*35,425,750	59	*15,249,197	21

Present debt, including the amount to be realized on the 1st of May, 1848, of the loans of 1846, 1847, and 1848, \$65,787,008 92.

DEBT OF THE SPANISH GOVERNMENT TO ENGLAND.

By a Parliamentary return just issued, it appears that there is due to the naval department of the English government from the Queen of Spain, for supplies of naval stores, provisions, &c., for the hire of transports, and for the subsistence of the men belonging to the British Legion employed in her service, £11,132 3d. There is also due to the Ordnance department, for arms and ammunition, £553,037, making in the whole a debt of £564,169 3d.

* Estimated returns not completed.

BRITISH COIN AND BULLION STATISTICS.

Amongst the British Parliamentary returns, one relating to the export of bullion from the United Kingdom is very interesting. From this document, prepared by the Inspector General of imports and exports at the custom-house, the following appears to have been the aggregate exports of coin and bullion from the United Kingdom for the years under-mentioned:—

Years.	British. Oz.	GOLD. Foreign. Oz.	Total. Oz.	British. Oz.	SILVER. Foreign. Oz.	Total. Oz.
1837.....	166,485	34,996	201,481	285,920	13,354,084	13,640,004
1838.....	375,548	105,883	481,431	464,918	12,894,904	13,359,822
1839.....	251,696	405,626	657,322	779,257	13,021,226	13,800,483
1840.....	57,700	316,871	374,571	471,869	15,496,408	15,968,277
1841.....	17,952	13,683	31,635	502,243	14,812,180	15,354,423
1842.....	107,829	9,363	117,192	149,832	13,832,956	13,982,788
1843.....	564,509	28,296	592,805	553,586	11,809,408	12,362,994
1844.....	23,979	40,209	64,188	325,721	13,403,310	13,729,031
1845.....	11,928	46,643	58,571	429,458	14,439,174	15,368,632
1846.....	99,529	38,878	138,305	237,209	9,380,419	9,617,628
1847.....	1,005,651	236,896	1,242,637	952,955	14,320,824	15,273,779

Of the 1,242,637 ounces of gold and 15,273,779 ounces of silver, thus shown to have been exported in 1847, it appears that 1,005,651 of the gold and 952,955 of the silver was in the coinage of this country, the remainder being foreign. While, however, nearly all the gold exported was British, the silver was almost exclusively foreign, the proportions being as follow:—

	Gold. Oz.	Silver. Oz.
British coinage.....	1,005,651	952,955
Foreign coin and bullion.....	236,986	14,320,824
Total exported.....	1,242,637	15,273,779

On an analysis of the account, the total amount of specie exported appears to have been shipped to foreign countries in the following proportions:—

To the	Gold. Oz.	Silver. Oz.		Gold. Oz.	Silver. Oz.
United States.....	838,029	British N. America	6,569	201,108
France.....	43,341	9,252,115	British W. Indies..	7,293	560,872
Hanseatic towns.....	33,954	3,312,233	Cuba.....	74,879
Holland.....	23,112	630,429	Other countries....	63,596	465,491
Belgium.....	47,400	430,086			
Portugal.....	93,502	144,342	Total exports....	1,242,637	15,273,779
Cape of Good Hope.	10,662	277,093			

Valuing the above amounts at the mint price of gold and the average price of silver, it would appear that the bullion exported exceeded £10,000,000 sterling, of which sum about half was gold and the remainder silver. From this amount, however, in order to ascertain the nett sum exported, the value of the specie imported must be deducted, but the custom-house returns do not afford any information on the point. The Bank of England returns show that the highest amount of gold and silver held during the year 1847 by that establishment was £14,951,575 on the 2d January; and the lowest amount £8,312,691 on the 23d October; the difference being £6,638,881. This may afford sufficiently correct data to estimate the actual amount of specie exported over the amount received.*

COINAGE OF THE BRITISH MINTS IN 1847.

According to a Parliamentary return, the total value of the gold coinage in 1847 was £90,029,763, of the silver coinage, £13,573,906, and copper, £243,051. The numbers of the different coins were 16,119 double sovereigns, 81,711,149 sovereigns, 16,572,717 half-sovereigns, 2,319,561 crown pieces, 38,560,098 half-crowns, 119,508,840 shillings, 76,017,875 sixpences, 16,575,200 groats, 88,209 fourpenny pieces, 1,463,308 threepenny pieces, 121,308 twopenny pieces, 271,920 silver pennies, 24,299,500 copper penny pieces, 34,379,520 half-penny pieces, 66,296,832 farthings, and 12,902,400 half-farthings.

* Wihner and Smith's Liverpool Times.

RAILROAD, CANAL, AND STEAMBOAT STATISTICS.

THE BOSTON AND MAINE RAILROAD.

The last annual report to the stockholders of the Maine Railroad, made at their annual meeting held September 13th, 1848, exhibits the financial affairs of the company as in a prosperous condition. This road, extending from Boston to Portland, a distance of 111 miles, was opened to travel as far as Andover in 1836, to Dover, N. H., 1841, and to South Berwick in 1843. The capital stock of this company is \$3,236,541. The receipts and expenses for the financial year ending June 1, 1848, to which time the accounts of the corporation are made, as per report of the Treasurer, are exhibited in the following table :

RECEIPTS.

Reserved profits, June 1, 1847.....	\$34,491 80
Reserve of account of repairs of engines and cars, June 1, 1841.....	16,000 00
Passenger fares.....	347,308 19
Freight.....	187,778 74
Mail.....	6,528 23
Rents.....	4,727 93
Total.....	\$596,834 89

EXPENDITURES.

Repairs of engines.....	\$32,110 50
" passenger cars.....	11,432 10
" freight cars.....	7,648 00
" gravel cars.....	1,120 15
" roads in Massachusetts.....	12,634 39
" road in New Hampshire.....	13,668 63
" " Maine.....	598 42
" depots in Massachusetts.....	2,709 92
" " New Hampshire.....	2,713 57
" " Maine.....	516 24
" bridges in Massachusetts.....	447 23
" " New Hampshire.....	290 80
" fence in Massachusetts.....	2 50
Care of bridges.....	1,303 69
Clearing snow.....	32 25
Merchandise expenses.....	19,030 08
General expenses.....	19,210 97
Portland, Saco, and Portsmouth Railroad Company toll....	22,668 00
Wood account.....	44,921 09
" and water account.....	12,540 08
Oil.....	10,808 53
Depots and offices.....	13,926 29
Conductors and brakemen.....	12,751 88
Engine and firemen.....	35,536 78
Taxes, including New Hampshire State Tax.....	6,636 86
Interest.....	14,870 71
	\$280,129 67
Nett profits.....	\$316,705 22
Dividend of \$5 00 per share, paid January 1, 1848.....	\$119,015 00
" \$4 50 " " July, 1, 1848.....	133,834 50
	\$252,849 50
	\$63,855 72
Charged off for depreciation of engines and cars.....	\$40,000 00
" bad debts.....	696 11
	\$40,696 11
Reserved profits, June 1, 1848.....	\$23,159 61

This, like all the railroads from Boston, furnishes great facilities to the merchants and business men of the city, as well as to residents in the towns from two to ten miles from Boston. Trains run to and from Medford, a distance of five miles, fourteen times a day; fare, 12½ cents; time, fifteen minutes. Season tickets, with privilege of going over the road that distance at pleasure, are sold by the company at \$25. Packages of tickets are sold at one-half the usual fare for any place on the route.

The following table, furnished by Charles Minot, Esq., the efficient superintendent of the road, gives the places, distances, and rates of fare for single and season tickets:—

DISTANCES, RATES OF FARE, &c., ON THE BOSTON AND MAINE RAILROAD.

Stations.	Miles.	Fares.	Season tickets.		
			3 months.	6 months.	12 months.
Somerville.....	2	\$0 06	\$5 50	\$10 00	\$20 00
Medford.....	5	0 12	6 87	12 50	25 00
Malden.....	5	0 12	6 87	12 50	25 00
Melrose.....	7	0 15	8 25	15 00	30 00
Stoneham.....	8	0 18	8 25	15 00	30 00
South Reading.....	10	0 20	9 62	17 50	35 00
Reading.....	12	0 25	11 00	20 00	40 00
Wilmington.....	15	0 35	13 75	25 00	50 00
Ballardvale.....	21	0 45	16 50	30 00	60 00
Andover.....	23	0 50	16 50	30 00	60 00
Lawrence.....	26	0 60	17 87	32 50	65 00
North Andover.....	28	0 65	19 25	35 00	70 00
Bradford.....	32	0 75	22 00	40 00	80 00
Haverhill.....	33	0 75	22 00	40 00	80 00
Plaistow.....	38	0 85
Newton.....	41	0 92
East Kingston.....	45	1 05
Exeter.....	50	1 12	27 50	50 00	100 00
South Newmarket.....	54	1 22
Newmarket.....	57	1 30
Durham.....	62	1 40
Dover.....	67	1 50	30 25	55 00	110 00
Somersworth.....	70	1 56
South Berwick.....	72	1 65
North Berwick.....	78	1 85
Wells.....	83	2 15
Kennebunk.....	88	2 30
Saco.....	98	2 80
Scarborough.....	105	3 00
Portland.....	111	3 00

On the 1st of July, the Directors of the road reduced the passenger tariff from 2 60-100 to 2 25-100 cents per mile. The receipts for July last fell off from those of the corresponding months of last year, but in August there was a gain over August of last year, another fact in favor of low fares.

AMERICAN OCEAN STEAM NAVIGATION.

It is a well known fact that the entire enterprise of ocean steam navigation was but recently in British hands, and conducted by British capital. The following particulars of the progress of this enterprise in the United States are furnished by a correspondent of the *Journal of Commerce*:—

The gigantic enterprise in which E. K. Collins is at present engaged, is the most extensive of any of the same character yet undertaken by a single individual in the United States—one in which upwards of \$2,500,000 are involved. Mr. C. contemplates the construction of five steamers of immense size to ply between this city and Liverpool, and carry the United States mail. Without exception, they will be the largest frame steam vessels ever built. Two of them are now far advanced; one in the yard of William H. Brown, and the other in that of Jacob Bell, and will probably both be launched in November

next. Their extreme length is 285 feet, breadth of beam 40 feet, depth of hold 31 feet. They will measure 3,000 tons, or about the same as the Great Britain (iron.) It is intended that they shall be completed in season to make their first trip in the early part of the fall of 1849. In model, they are unlike any steam vessel heretofore built, having more floor and sharper ends. They are also without a cut water, and carry no bowsprit. Their frames are all sided, 12 to 14 inches, and floors 21 inches, moulded, filled in solid to the floor heads, and coaged with locust throughout.

Some idea of the extent of this department of naval architecture may be gathered from the following list of steam vessels that have been recently, or are soon to be, built in this city.

Charleston packets.....	Southerner	1,000
	Northerner	1,100
	Washington.....	1,750
Southampton and Bremen.....	Hermann.....	1,805
	Franklin.....	2,200
	California.....	1,100
Howland & Aspinwall's Pacific line.....	Oregon.....	1,200
	Panama.....	1,100
	Cherokee.....	1,250
New York and Savannah.....	Pawnee.....	1,200
	Crescent City.....	1,500
	Empire City.....	1,600
Howard's New York and New Orleans.....	United States.....	2,000
	Ohio.....	1,500
	(Mate).....	2,706
Law's New Orleans and Chagres branch.....	Two unknown.....
	Not named.....	3,000
	"	3,000
Collins' New York and Liverpool line.....	"	3,000
	"	3,000
	"	3,000

Here we have 22 steamships whose aggregate tonnage is about 40,000 tons, and in which is, or is to be, invested a capital exceeding \$9,000,000.

FRENCH RAILROAD TRAFFIC.

The traffic returns of French railways for each month of the present year, ending July, 1848, show the effects of the revolutions upon commerce and general trade. The carriage of passengers and goods of every description has very much declined, and of course the receipts have been proportionably small. The number of passengers by all the lines during the month of July was 325,565, against 363,127 at the same period of last year, and against 377,640 in 1846. The receipts had been 997,539 francs during the same month in the present year, against 1,384,032 francs in July, 1847, and 1,354,108 francs in 1846. The total receipts from January to July, inclusive, this year, had been 6,726,293 francs against 8,005,031 francs to the same time last year, and 7,218,137 francs in 1846, for the same period.

PASSENGERS ON THE RAILROADS OF ENGLAND AND IRELAND.

A British Parliamentary return shows that the number of passengers carried on the various railways in Great Britain and Ireland, in the half year ending June 30, 1848, was 26,330,492. In the same period 90 persons were killed, and 99 injured by accidents. Of the persons killed, 11 were passengers, 59 servants of companies or contractors, 19 trespassers, and one suicide.

NOISE ON RAILROADS PREVENTED.

Mr. Grant, one of the engineers on the Auburn and Syracuse Railroad, states that a plan has been devised and carried into effect on that road, to prevent the noise which causes so much annoyance on railroads. The plates in general use are abolished, and the ends of the rails are connected by dowel pins, entering about 1½ inches. The cars glide over the rails without any disagreeable jarring or noise.

MERCANTILE MISCELLANIES.

THE UNFORTUNATE AND THE CRIMINAL CREDITOR.

THERE is a certain innate feeling of contempt in the breast of the creditor who makes a pecuniary loss for the individual or individuals who, having proved unfortunate, are obliged to offer a portion only of what they justly owe to their creditors, and a man who has suffered in his purse, is apt to look upon those who have caused it with a sharp eye. The creditor is not apt to take into account the uncertainties incidental to every business, but judges at once, and oftentimes too harshly. There are failures which are caused by gross negligence and the private extravagance of the partners, and cases also occur when a failure seems to be the result of no lack of integrity or business qualification, but occasioned by a sad run of what is called *bad luck*, entirely beyond the control of human beings. If this is true then there should be a distinction made, and such persons certainly deserve from those even who suffer better treatment than the man who under false pretences obtains credit and then leaves the creditor in the lurch. There are many, we are thankful for it, who make this distinction, but there are also those who are hard-fisted and over-grasping, who pursue the *unfortunate* debtor as well as the culpable creditor to the last point; hesitating not at invading his household and taking from his wife and family the smallest article to cancel their debt, and when he again endeavors to rise, he is crushed by those to whom he has relinquished his last farthing; and worried and harrassed till his energy is subdued, he is driven as a last resort to intoxication to drown the thought of his cares and perplexities. Such instances have occurred, and may occur again. We can point out a man in this city who has been driven by such treatment to be what he now is. He was an honorable man at heart, but he was an unfortunate not a criminal debtor. Driven by the demands of his creditors to the brink of the precipice, he was there kept till he fell. Had he been allowed his time, not one man would have lost a penny by his unfortunate failure. There is a vast difference between the unfortunate and the guilty, which creditors should reflect upon before they condemn or before they act.—*Boston Evening Gazette*.

A MODEL STORE IN PHILADELPHIA.

The *Dry Goods Reporter* gives the following description of a store recently erected in Philadelphia, where convenience is combined with comfort, and utility has been made the handmaid of good taste:—

Many elegant stores have been erected in New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, within a few years, but perhaps none is better entitled to the appellation of a *model* store, than the one recently erected in the latter place, built partly upon an old burying-ground belonging to the first Presbyterian Church. This burying lot, fronting on Bank-street, and lying in the rear of a tavern and an irregular pile of buildings which opened on Strawberry, (a parallel street,) has been neglected for many years, and having lately been sold by the church, has only just been opened for improvement. The most of it was purchased by an enterprising importing and commission house, who have erected upon it a block of stores, the largest of which is for their own use. It is of this last that we design more particularly to speak.

This store has two entrances, as it runs entirely through from Bank to Strawberry-street, making a length of 135 feet. The first story is of hewn granite, massive and substantial as the fortunes of the proprietors. The remaining three stories are of brick, and the whole building is handsomely lighted, and rendered more secure by fire-proof shutters.

The main front is on Bank-street, where it has a width of 35 feet: after running back about 85 feet, the line on which the store is built widens abruptly 10 feet, so that the remaining 60 feet, back to the entrance on Strawberry-street, is 45 feet wide. The extra width thus gained, which, as will be readily seen, is 10 feet by 60 feet, is partitioned off from the main room on the first floor, and is divided into four distinct apartments, with glass-doors; the first one is used for a private counting room by the members of the firm, the second and third are withdrawing rooms for the reception of persons calling on private business, and the fourth is occupied by the clerks of the establishment.

The main room on the first floor is a noble show room, 136 feet in length, 35 feet in width, and 13 feet in height. It is lighted in the centre by an enormous skylight, which

is protected from the second story by a graceful iron railing, and wainscotted in from the third and fourth stories. The capacity of this room will be better understood when we state that exclusive of the proper passages, it will conveniently display over two hundred large cases of goods.

The room on the second floor is larger than the first, and being well lighted from the windows at each end, as well as from the skylight in the centre, it is well calculated for a sales-room. The ascent is by a flight of steps against the side wall, immediately under which is the descent to the basement.

In the latter, on one side there is now nearly finished a steam-boiler and accompanying apparatus, which is to answer the double purpose of warming the house, and furnishing power to raise goods through the several hatchways to any floor where they may be required. The latter object is of great importance, as the labor of handling such a vast number of heavy packages, without superhuman motive power, must be immense.

Nor is the former object unworthy the attention of persons building for the same uses. The most suitable method of warming large buildings has led to a great deal of profound study, without as yet producing a *ne plus ultra*, or final method. Large stoves with great stretches of pipe, are very dangerous fixtures. Furnaces have been objected to as creating a dry atmosphere very injurious to the lungs; but whatever may be said of their influence on the health, the heat they generate is positively ruinous to goods. The plan adopted in this establishment combines all the improvements as yet known. It is simply this. The steam is carried through a great extent of pipe laid horizontally in contiguous rows in a large air chamber, from whence the warm air, thus heated, is allowed to circulate through the various apartments.

The difference between air thus warmed by steam, and that which has been robbed of a vital principle by contact with the red-hot pipes of a furnace, may be illustrated by comparing a potato that has been steamed in a pot with one that has been baked in an oven.

THE COMMERCIAL VALUE OF BONES.

A correspondent of the Philadelphia Enquirer thus describes a manufacturing operation which is going on successfully at Williamsburgh, on the East River, opposite New York:

Taking advantage of a few hours' leisure on Saturday last, I took a trip to Williamsburgh, on the other side of the East River, to inspect a newly erected factory there, owned by Horatio N. Fryatt, Esq., of New York city, well known as the proprietor of the Belleville (N. J.) White Lead Establishment. This establishment has been erected at an expense of \$40,000, for the purpose of making money out of nothing, which is done there daily on a tremendous scale. I will detail to you how it is done. The proprietor purchases by the quantity animal bones of all kinds, which are gathered in our streets by the *chiffoniers*, at the rate of 25 cents a bushel. These are submitted to several processes for different purposes, each of which results in a large profit. In the first place they are boiled, and the grease thoroughly extracted from them. The product is sold to the soap makers at six and a half cents per pound. They are then submitted to another operation, the result of which is glue of the best description, and which commands the highest market price. The bones are then converted into ivory black for the use of sugar refiners, and the portions which are too small in size for this purpose, are sold as bone manure at the rate of a cent per pound, at which price a gentleman of Philadelphia takes it all. Thus it appears that there is not a particle of waste throughout, and at each stage of the business a considerable profit is made.

IMPORTANCE OF PUNCTUALITY IN BUSINESS.

Method is the very hinge of business: that there is no method without punctuality is important, because it subserves the peace and good temper of a family; the want of it not only infringes on necessary duty, but sometimes excludes this duty. The calmness of mind which it produces is another advantage of punctuality. A disorderly man is always in a hurry; he has no time to speak to you, because he was going elsewhere; and when he gets there he is too late for his business, or he must hurry away before he can finish it. Punctuality gives weight to character. "Such a man has made an appointment; then I know he will keep it." And this generates punctuality in you; for like other virtues it propagates itself. Servants and children must be punctual where their leader is so. Appointments, indeed, become debts. I owe you punctuality, if I have made an appointment with you; and I have no right to throw away your time if I do my own.

THE BOOK TRADE.

- 1.—*The Opal: a Pure Gift for all Seasons.* Edited by SARAH JOSEPHA HALE. New York: J. C. Riker.

We received this "pure" and beautiful "gift book" just as the last sheet of our journal for October was going to press, and then only had time to announce its publication. "In this volume," says the "good and gifted" editress, "the best as the latest, we have sought to carry out and illustrate the original plan; which was, to bring together, in one volume, specimens worthy of being preserved of the various kinds of literature usually termed 'popular.' We have here embodied the result in the several forms of religious, romantic, moral, and critical articles;—the poem, essay, story and biography have each and all lent their rays to make our Opal a gem of light. The articles are original, written for this work, and will be found of far deeper interest than usually characterizes books of this class. We need say nothing of the contributors. Each name is known and honored in our literature." This is all true, and we rejoice to find that Mrs. Hale has been "able to enroll such writers in this experiment of forming a higher tone of moral excellence for the fashionable books of the parlor and boudoir." The engravings, eight in number, designed expressly for the Opal, are from pictures by that accomplished artist, Rothermel. They excel the illustrations of this work in either of the six preceding years that it has been published. Among the contributors we notice the names of N. P. Willis, C. F. Hoffman, Bishop Potter, H. T. Tuckerman, Bayard Taylor, Hannah F. Gould, E. Oakes Smith, and many of equal excellence and celebrity as popular writers. In all that pertains to its external appearance, it will not suffer by comparison with any that we have seen, English or American.

- 2.—*The Odd-Fellows' Offering, for 1849.* Embellished with twelve elegant Engravings. Edited by PASCAL DONALDSON. 8vo., pp. 320. New York: Edward Walker.

This is the seventh annual issue of the "Odd-Fellows' Offering." That the present is vastly superior to the earlier volumes, must be apparent to the most superficial critic. Under the homely name assumed by the fraternity, we find principles pure and imperishable; and we rejoice that those concerned in the editorship and publication are able "to make a book worthy of the steady and healthful increase of the institution whose objects and principles" it so ably defends and so happily illustrates. Mr. Donaldson, the editor, pays a well-merited tribute to Mr. Walker, "for the superior materials of which the book is composed, both as regards paper and binding;" and the really creditable manner in which it is presented, "must," he says, "convince Odd Fellows that our good brother the publisher is determined to spare neither pains nor expense in producing a Souvenir worthy of our excellent Order." Dived of its anti-republican regalia and its childish ceremonials, Odd-Fellowship is worthy of all acceptance; for its "sentiments are those of Friendship, Love, and Truth," its "teachings those of Benevolence and Charity." The contributors to this volume, impressed with the spirit of the Institution, have infused into its pages, in the form of the entertaining narrative, or the well-told tale, essay, sketch, or poem, the pure, practical principles of the Order, which are in perfect harmony with the teachings of Christianity. The illustrations, engraved from original designs, are in keeping with the character of the annual, which, as a standard gift book, will not suffer materially by comparison with similar productions of the American press.

- 3.—*The Book of Pearls: a choice Garland of Prose, Poetry, and Art.* Containing twenty beautiful Steel Engravings. 8vo., pp. 280. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This new candidate for favor in the world of annuals comes to us gorgeous in its external appearance, and rich in its pictorial illustrations; and the editor seems to have aspired to that "high standard of merit in her department which the artists have attained in theirs." The embellishments will, on the whole, compare well with the most approved productions of the "pencil and the burin." The selections brought together are from many of the best writers of England and our own country, and of a character that give to the volume a classical and permanent, rather than an ephemeral value. Among the illustrations, twenty in number, are portraits of Lord Byron and Thomas Moore. The illustrations are mostly the product of European artists. The gilded and tasty, but substantial covering, impart quite an English-like appearance to the volume; and the paper and print, which are American, are as favorable specimens of our progress in typography and paper-making as we have ever seen.

- 4.—*The Law of Debtor and Creditor in the United States and Canada, adapted to the wants of Merchants and Lawyers.* By J. P. HOLCOMB, author of a "Digest of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States;" editor of "Smith's Mercantile Law," "Leading Cases upon Commercial Law," etc. D. Appleton & Co.

That we approve of the plan of this work, may be inferred from the fact that we commenced, as long ago as 1840, the publication in the Merchants' Magazine of a series of articles with precisely the same title and design, which we have continued at intervals to the present time. We have already published articles on the Law of Debtor and Creditor in the States of Maine, Missouri, New Jersey, New Hampshire, Connecticut, Vermont, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Ohio, Michigan, Missouri, Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Wisconsin, Iowa, Louisiana, Tennessee, etc., which were mostly prepared by gentlemen of the bar residing in each of those States. We shall continue the series, until we have gone through the thirty States of the American Union, giving from time to time the alterations that are made in each State affecting the Law of Debtor and Creditor. The advantage of Mr. Holcomb's work is, that the whole subject is embraced in a single volume, and therefore more accessible and convenient for ready reference. Mr. H.'s work contains an abstract of the laws and decisions of the various States upon every important point of the Law of Debtor and Creditor which can interest the merchant or lawyer. It has been compiled from the original sources, with the assistance of eminent counsel in the several States. It contains a summary of all the provisions relative to the dignity and obligations of the various species of contracts, and the different modes by which each may be enforced. Thus, the procedure in each State to collect debts, including the laws of attachment, the different species of executions, the statute of limitations, the rule of interest and damages, the respective dignity of different instruments, and the defences which may be made to each, the effect of intestacy and insolvency upon the rights of creditors, and other matters of local importance and interesting to distant creditors. The book contains full references to the statutes and decided cases, so as to supply also the wants of the lawyer. Daniel Lord, Esq., good authority in matters of commercial law, says of this work:—"The plan is excellent in the selection of the most useful topics, relating to the most common business, and in a plain presentation of the rules which apply to them. As to its correctness, judging from its statement of the law of New York, of which only I can speak with assurance, I consider it remarkably accurate and comprehensive."

- 5.—*Considerations upon the Nature and Tendency of Free Institutions.* By FREDERICK GRIMKE. 8vo., pp. 554. Cincinnati: H. W. Derby & Co. New York: A. S. Barnes.

This work, as we learn from the author, is the labor of more than eight years, having been commenced in 1840 and finished about eighteen months ago. The author seems to have been deeply impressed with the difficulties which surround the science of government; but that has not deterred him from meeting them with a manly courage, apparently free from any prejudices calculated to warp the judgment or mislead the understanding. His propositions are stated with great clearness, and the deductions presented with a force of argument that will interest the general reader if they do not satisfy the enlightened statesman. Whatever may be the conclusions of the reader as to the general soundness of the views embraced in this work, he must, we think, admit that the author brought to his task profound thought, and the ability to take the philosophical view which belongs to things the most common and familiar, joined to a keen insight into men's characters and dispositions; qualities absolutely necessary to the mind that would penetrate into the principles of a science but yet in its infancy. The volume is divided into four books, and each part into chapters, which are devoted to the discussion of a distinct subject, all, however, relating to the design of the work. We have space only to enumerate a few of the points considered and discussed, namely, the reason of the rule that the majority have the right to govern; nature and operation of the elective government; the principle of equality, and to what extent it can be carried; the electoral franchise; whether any, and what, limits should be imposed; the mode of electing public officers; parties; a republic essentially a government of restraint; political toleration; sovereignty of the people; a written constitution; its efficacy in giving meaning and consistency to the political institutions; idea of monarchical government; the legislative power; religious institutions; institutions for the education of the people; military institutions; institution of the press; institution of slavery; the judicial power; the veto power of the States; the executive power; the various classes of society, their mutual influence, and their influence upon the motions of government; the influence of America on Europe; the French and English constitutions. We hope to find time and space to give the work a more elaborate review in the pages of our journal, as we consider it one of great value, which should be studied by every citizen of the Republic.

- 6.—*Kings and Queens, or Life in the Palace. Consisting of Historical Sketches of Josephine and Maria Louisa, Louis Philippe, Ferdinand of Austria, Nicholas, Isabella II., Leopold, and Victoria.* By JOHN S. C. ABBOTT. Pp. 312. New York: Harper & Brothers.

This volume portrays the prominent incidents connected with the lives of some of the principal crowned heads of Europe. The sketches are clear and well drawn, and the author appears to have exercised a due degree of diligence in investigating the facts which certainly ought to render a work of this kind faithful and accurate. Some of the characters which he exhibits furnish models of excellence, while others present traits which cannot but be regarded with regret, and even abhorrence. It will hardly be denied that those who occupy public stations sustain most responsible positions, nor should they seek to avoid scrutiny. Most of all should the rays that stream from the regal diadem be pure and serene. The influence of the actions of such individuals is extensive in proportion to their elevation. When guided by no moral restraint it resembles a volcano, which casts up sulphurous smoke and ashes before the eye of heaven, and with its lava blasting and destroying all in its desolating course. During the present period of revolution abroad, these sketches, embellished with appropriate engravings, will doubtless attract interest, and be widely circulated.

- 7.—*The Image of his Father: a Tale of a Young Monkey.* By the Brothers MAYHEW. With Illustrations. 12mo., pp. 249. New York: Harper & Brothers.

It is not absolutely necessary that the moral of every book published in this nineteenth century should at once strike the mind of the unsophisticated reader. Now there are certain conditions of the body and mind that require food easy of digestion, and for such conditions, we apprehend, the author designed this work. It is amusing; and if it contains nothing of a positively instructive character, it is free from vitiating influences. The illustrations, ten in number, are admirable in conception, and do credit to the skill of the artist who designed, and to the graver, who imparted to the wood the power of multiplication.

- 8.—*A History of France, from the Conquest of Gaul, by Julius Cæsar, to the Reign of Louis Philippe: with Conversations at the end of each chapter.* By MRS. MARKHAM. Prepared for the use of Schools by the addition of a Map, Notes, and Questions, and a supplementary chapter, bringing down the History to the present time. By JACOB ABBOTT. 12mo., pp. 629. New York: Harper & Brothers.

The History of France by Mrs. Markham, as Mr. Abbott, the American editor, justly remarks, is a very clear, succinct, and entertaining narrative. It communicates a distinct and connected idea of the progress of events of which that most remarkable country has been the scene. The reputation, well deserved, of Mr. Abbott as a teacher, writer, and thinker, is, to our mind, a sufficient guaranty of the excellence of this work; and we have no hesitation in recommending it not only to schools but to the general reader, as a compendious and satisfactory history of France.

- 9.—*Chambers' Miscellany of Useful and Entertaining Knowledge.* Boston: Gould, Kendall, & Lincoln.

We have received Nos. 27 and 28 of this popular Miscellany. Two more will complete the work, forming ten duodecimo volumes; which, we are free to say, embody a mass of amusing and instructive reading that we should scarcely know where else to find in the same compass. For variety and interest, the work is without an exception. The well-told story, the choicest gems of poetry, the able essay, the touching and truthful narrative, and the instructive biography, are well represented in the collection. For family, popular reading, no work perhaps in our language excels Chambers' Miscellany. More than a million copies of it have been sold in England.

- 10.—*Sketches of St. Augustine. With a View of its History, and Advantages as a Resort for Invalids.* By R. K. SEWALL. 12mo., pp. 69. New York: G. P. Putnam.

St. Augustine is the oldest town within the limits of the United States, the settlement having been commenced by the Spanish as early as 1565, and is, in many historical points of view, one of the most interesting in the country. The little volume gives a succinct history of the place, and is well calculated to satisfy the curiosity of the invalid who is about to resort to it for the restoration of impaired health. It moreover embraces a description of the class of diseases reached and supposed to be favorably affected by the climate. It is illustrated with tables of the comparative and absolute temperature of the city, and several engravings.

- 11.—*The Sketch Book of Geoffrey Crayon, Gent.* The Author's revised edition. Complete in one volume. New York: George P. Putnam.

This is the second volume of the new, complete, and beautiful edition of the works of Washington Irving. It seems to us almost, if not quite, a work of supererogation to notice the "Sketch Book" of Irving, as almost everybody that reads anything has enjoyed the pleasure of perusing the inimitable tales and sketches embraced in it. The work has been revised by Mr. I., and is introduced to the public by a new preface, recounting the trials and triumphs of the author, which is almost worth the price of the volume. The uniform and exquisitely beautiful style in which this edition of Irving's works are presented to the public, deserves to be spoken of in terms of high commendation; and we earnestly trust that the intelligent publisher will be amply remunerated for capital so well employed.

- 12.—*The Rise and Fall of Louis Philippe, Ex-King of the French; giving a History of the French Revolution, from its commencement in 1789.* By BEN. PERLEY POORE, late Historical Agent of Massachusetts to France, and Paris Correspondent of the Boston Atlas. Illustrated with Historical Engravings, Portraits, and Fac-Similes. 12mo., pp. 316. William D. Ticknor & Co.

Mr. Poor has brought together, in a convenient compass, all the prominent facts connected with the rise and fall of the ex-king of France. The principal events that have transpired in the history of that remarkable nation from the birth of Louis Philippe d'Orleans in 1773, and from the commencement of the French Revolution in 1789 to the memorable events of the present year, are related with apparent fidelity, and the work is written in a popular and pleasing style. In an appendix to the work the author has given concise but comprehensive sketches of the leading men of France; and the volume is illustrated with several portraits.

- 13.—*The Course of Time; a Poem.* By ROBERT POLLOK, A. M. *With an Essay on his Poetical Genius.* By JAMES SCOTT, D. D., Pastor of the Reformed Dutch Church, Newark, N. J. 18mo., pp. 433. New York: Robert Carter.

No poem, perhaps, in our language, created at the time of its appearance a greater sensation; and none, perhaps, since that time, has passed through so many and so large editions, or been so widely circulated wherever the English language is read or spoken. A great number of editions have been republished in this country; and we are informed by the publishers, that no single poem produced since the "Course of Time" first saw the light, has been so extensively sold. We know not how many we have seen; but we do know that they have been, so far as our own country is concerned, printed on wretchedly poor paper. Indeed, this is the first really handsome edition that has yet been published; the paper, type, and indeed the entire material of the volume, cannot fail of securing for it a place in the library of every person of taste. The introductory essay of Dr. Scott, a true admirer and just appreciator of the genius of Pollok, greatly enhances the value of the present edition.

- 14.—*Robert Burns; as a Poet and as a Man.* By SAMUEL TYLER, of the Maryland Bar. 12mo., pp. 209. New York: Baker & Scribner.

The genius and character of Robert Burns has been the theme of many able and gifted minds, and yet the subject, it would seem, was by no means exhausted. The author of this work is a sincere admirer of Burns; and while he gives a prominence to his genius as a poet, he defends him from the false and narrow imputations cast upon his character as a man, by a class of minds deficient in those elements of moral vision and intellectual criticism so absolutely indispensable in forming a correct judgment. The author will find many who heartily sympathize with him in his estimate of the poet's character. We cheerfully acknowledge ourself to belong to that number.

- 15.—*Observations on the Pathology of the Croup: with Remarks on its Treatment by Topical Medications.* By HORACE GREEN, A. M., M. D., etc. 12mo., pp. 115. New York: John Wiley.

The system of treating the croup, as practiced by Dr. Green, is by the introduction of a solution of nitrate of silver into the larynx of a child affected with it. The practice herein advocated will doubtless attract the attention of that portion of the profession who have the liberality to admit that improvements in the practice of the medical art can be made, and the energy and honesty to test such proposed improvements before condemning them. Several cases, we are assured by the author, have been treated on this plan with success, not only by Dr. Green, but other members of the New York Medical and Surgical Society.

- 16.—*Naomi; or Boston Two Hundred Years Ago.* By ELIZA BUCKMINSTER LEE, author of a life of "Jean Paul." 12mo., pp. 324. Boston: Wm. Crosby & H. P. Nichols.

If the Boston press is less prolific in the production of works of pure fiction, it more than makes up for the deficiency in the practical character of the few it sends out, and in the beautiful and substantial character of the *materiel*, in every application of that word. The present volume may be referred to as an illustration of this remark, the object of which is to "present the bigoted age, the limited views, the deep provocation, and the stern justice (?) of our forefathers in their dealings with the Quakers," and preserve an exact justice between the two parties; while the author does "not conceal the audacity, the determined perseverance, and the spiritual pride of those illiterate Quaker women who came to this country as much to gain notoriety as from a sincere desire for martyrdom." Some of the actors of the narrative are fictitious, but no "incidents are introduced touching the Quakers that did not actually occur in the years through which the events of the story pass." Taking the "neutral ground of manners and sentiments that are common to us and our ancestors, arising out of the principles of our common nature, and existing alike in both states of society," Mrs. Lee has undoubtedly reproduced as perfect a picture of the domestic manners of our ancestors as "hints gleaned in the records of police officers and the invoices of vessels" would permit.

- 17.—*The Poems of Samuel Taylor Coleridge. With an Introductory Essay on his Life and Writings.* By H. T. TUCKERMAN. 12mo., pp. 384. New York: Charles S. Francis & Co.

This is certainly a very handsome, and, we believe, complete edition of Coleridge's poems, of which to speak in this place would be a work of supererogation on our part. Not the least interesting portion of the present volume is the admirable introductory essay of Mr. H. T. Tuckerman. It is at once a kind, but just and discriminating criticism of the genius and character of the philosopher and poet, and although brief, is remarkably comprehensive.

- 18.—*The West: its Commerce and Navigation.* By JAMES HALL. Cincinnati: H. W. Derby & Co. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

In the compass of three hundred and twenty-eight pages, Judge Hall has contrived to present a vast amount of information relating to the commercial growth and greatness of the West. The navigation of the western waters, the steamboats, the cities, manufactures, and, indeed, all those facts and figures which bear upon the extraordinary and rapid development of the resources of the West, are exhibited in a concise but comprehensive form. Although we have embodied, in former volumes of the *Merchants' Magazine*, most of the statements of this volume, our readers will find it a valuable book of reference, as the facts are very conveniently grouped for that purpose.

- 19.—*The Art Union Journal. Art Union Monthly Journal of the Arts.* London: Chapman & Hall. New York: J. P. Ridner.

The September number of this beautiful work contains three line engravings, viz: "The Intruder," from a painting by Landseer; the latest portrait of Napoleon, (on board the Bellerophon,) painted by Eastlake in 1815; and Narcissus. The work continues to maintain its high character as a work of art, and its literary contributions would not detract from the reputation of the most popular European periodicals.

- 20.—*Ellen Middleton. A Tale.* By Lady GEORGINA FULLERTON, author of "Grantley Manor." From the last London edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This tale, like "Grantley Manor," which preceded it, will find a large class of readers and admirers. It is deeply imbued with the religious sentiment; and its lessons of virtue and religion are enforced far more effectively in the form of its judiciously constructed narrative, than they would be in a prosy discourse from a spiritless, formal pulpit. The tale is interspersed with many rare and just, if not original, remarks, and hits off the petty vices and foibles of conventional and every-day life not unsuccessfully.

- 21.—*An Elementary Practical Book for learning to Speak and Write the Spanish Language.* From the Method of Dr. J. H. P. LERDENSTUECKER. By J. GIRARD, P. L. New York: Collins & Brother.

The design of this elementary book is, as we learn from the preface, to imitate as nearly as possible the natural way by which children come to the knowledge of their mother tongue, and to prepare them for the study of a complete grammar, and for the use of the larger reading books. Adults will find in this little book an excellent assistance, by which they may gradually acquire the art of speaking and writing the Spanish language "with less labor and time than by any other method."

- 22.—*The Rose of Sharon: a Religious Souvenir for 1849.* Edited by MRS. S. C. EGARTON MAYO. Boston: A. Tompkins.

A melancholy interest attaches to the present volume of this favorite annual, as "the last that will be edited by her" whose name has graced the title-page for so many years, and whose pure and beautiful productions have added so much to the value and interest of its contents. She died just as the volume was ready for the press, and "the last lines that she wrote are here; the last pages upon which her eye rested are here." It was fitting that one who knew her well should close the volume she had prepared with a tribute to her memory and her character. The articles in the present volume are all original, and will compare well with the best that have in former years contributed to the substantial character and elevated religious (not sectarian) tone of this unpretending but beautiful souvenir. The illustrations, seven in number, the "Dawn of Love," "Guardian Angels," "Our Father in Heaven," "Brother and Sister," "Contemplation," "The First Theft," are beautiful, certainly among the happiest of Sartain's mezzotints. The literary illustrations are generally creditable to the writers.

- 23.—*The Literary World.* E. A. & G. L. DUYCKINCK, Editors and Proprietors. 157 Broadway, New York. \$3 per annum.

The attempt to establish a journal combining the selectness of literature into the miscellaneous interests of a newspaper has never been fairly tried, either in this country or in England. Under its new management we hope this will be the case of the *Literary World*; it has the basis for the undertaking, and in the rising talent which might and should be engaged in its columns, it would find a guarantee of success. The recent numbers, edited by Mr. E. A. Duyckinck, show a tendency of the kind we refer to. They are more various, more general, less "cabined and confined" to the mere circle of books. The plan of the paper as now conducted seems to embrace the news of art, literature, and society, as well as critiques on books. A most piquant department is the miscellany under the title of "What is Talked About," which allows a chance comment on every passing question, and, under an agreeable cover, has its "say" as freely as any daily paper of the hour. The pictorial illustrations, with which the text is now accompanied, give the publication a cheerful look, and are calculated still further to extend its reception among the friends and promoters of art. We regard the *Literary World* as now fixed, after a two years' trial of the weather, on a firm foundation both of business, prosperity, and influence.

"LECTURES ON THE LITERATURE, LEARNING, AND RELIGION OF THE MIDDLE AGES."—LEICESTER F. A. BUCKINGHAM, Esq., from London, a son of the well known author, lecturer, and traveller, has issued proposals for a course, to consist of five lectures, on the above-named subject, which he intends to deliver in the city of New York during the present season. An extract from Mr. Buckingham's prospectus, will give the reader an idea of the character and design of the series:—

"The researches of historians have elucidated and illustrated much that is important and interesting with regard to the Political History of THE MIDDLE AGES; their battles, their victories, and their warlike achievements have been investigated with diligence and learning, and the most prominent events of their civil and military annals have been placed within the reach of the student, and narrated with copious detail. But that more interesting portion of their history which treats of the condition of mankind in respect of Learning and Religion, has been either wholly neglected, or discussed with prejudiced partiality. The evil spirit of bigotry, which has exercised so extensive and baneful an influence upon secular studies, has refused to give ear to aught but vehement denunciation of the men of those remote centuries; partisan writers have depicted them as ignorant, vicious, and enslaved; and the general reader has been unable to correct, by his own study, these erroneous impressions, since the materials for the illustration of these interesting topics lie beyond the range of popular inspection, buried in the inaccessible works of antique writers, and scattered through the rare literature of bygone centuries.

"To correct these inaccurate impressions, and to convey, by the adduction of authentic evidence, a faithful view of the intellectual and religious condition of mankind in the Middle Ages, will be the object of the present lectures. Conceived in no sectarian spirit, they will aim at presenting the men of those centuries as they really were; and illustrating the means which existed for the multiplication of Books, the diffusion of Learning, and the circulation of the Sacred Scriptures among the people. These are matters of correct acquaintance with which is indispensable to the reader of history; and in conveying the evidence upon these points, which has been collected by a long course of careful and laborious study of ancient writers, it will be endeavored to present the knowledge thus accumulated, in as popular a form as is consistent with the gravity of historical investigation."

These lectures have been listened to by large and delighted audiences in London and other parts of England, and are spoken of by the English press in terms of the highest commendation. The several Mercantile Library Associations in all our large cities would do well to engage Mr. Buckingham for the course.

- 25.—*The Seven Capital Sins. Envy, or Frederick Bastien.* By M. EUGENE SUE, author of the "Mysteries of Paris," etc. New York: Burgess, Stringer, & Co.

A powerful delineation of the workings of "Envy," fully equal to "Pride," which preceded it, from the same masterly hand.